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Canada. Women's Bureau

Women at work in Canada.

A fact book on the female labour  
force of Canada.

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## IN CANADA

WOMEN'S BUREAU, DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR.



. . . THE WOMEN'S BUREAU,

a branch of the Federal Department of Labour, was established in September 1954. Its purpose is to help bring about a better understanding of the problems of women workers and their jobs and to promote good labour standards in all fields of women's employment. An important aspect of the work of the Bureau is the dissemination of information regarding the female labour force of the nation.

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A

Fact Book

on the

Female

Labour Force

of

Canada

**WOMEN AT WORK  
IN CANADA**

Women's Bureau

Department of Labour

Publication No. 1

Published under the authority of  
**The Honourable Milton F. Gregg**  
Minister of Labour

**A. H. Brown**  
Deputy Minister of Labour

Price 25 cents



## FOREWORD

*The purpose of this handbook is to give a concise factual account of the growth in numbers, the age distribution, the marital status, the occupations and the earnings of gainfully employed women in Canada. It contains also a brief account of the laws that affect women's work and some information regarding working conditions in selected industries in which a substantial number of women are employed.*

*Statistical data have been drawn from various sources, particularly the Census of Canada, the monthly survey of the Labour Force carried out by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics and annual surveys of wages and working conditions in industry made by the Economics and Research Branch.*

*The Economics and Research Branch has generously shared responsibility for the preparation of the material. The summary of legal regulations was compiled by the Legislation Branch.*

*The assistance of all those who have contributed to the book is acknowledged with gratitude.*

Department of Labour,  
Ottawa, January 31, 1957.

Marion V. Royce,  
Director, Women's Bureau.

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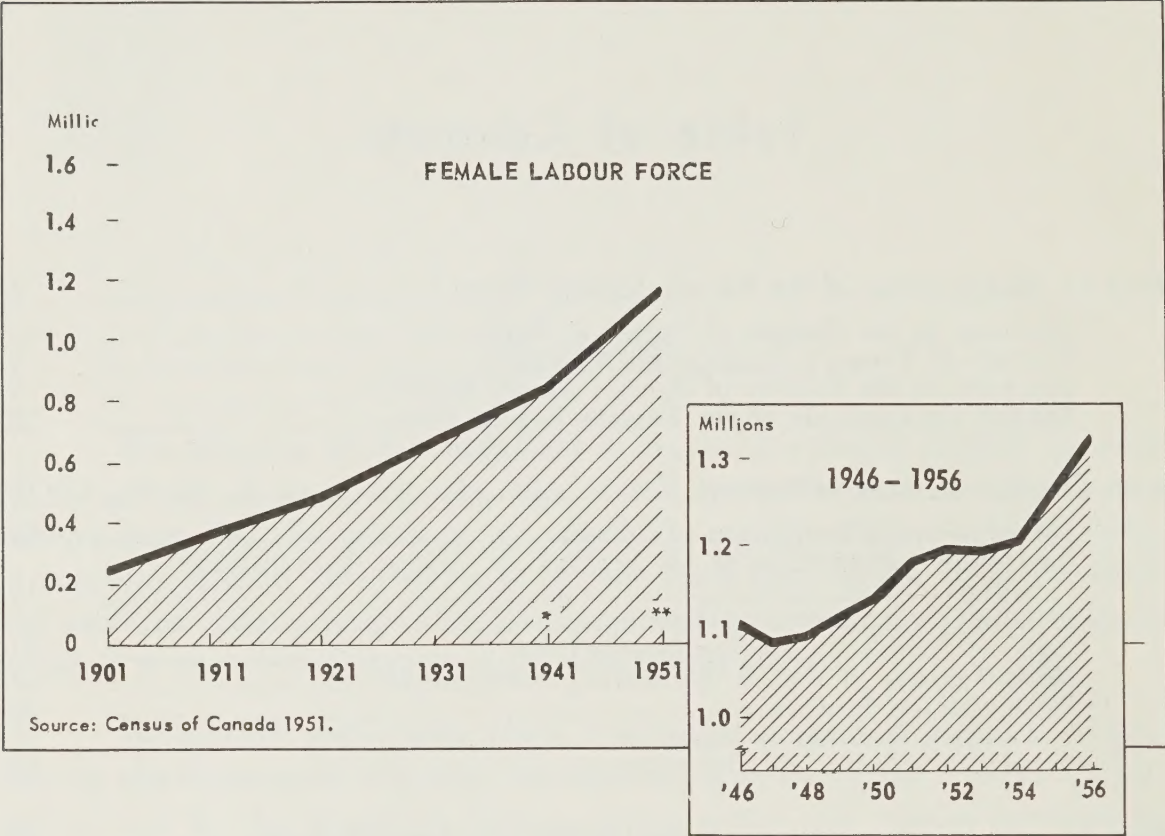
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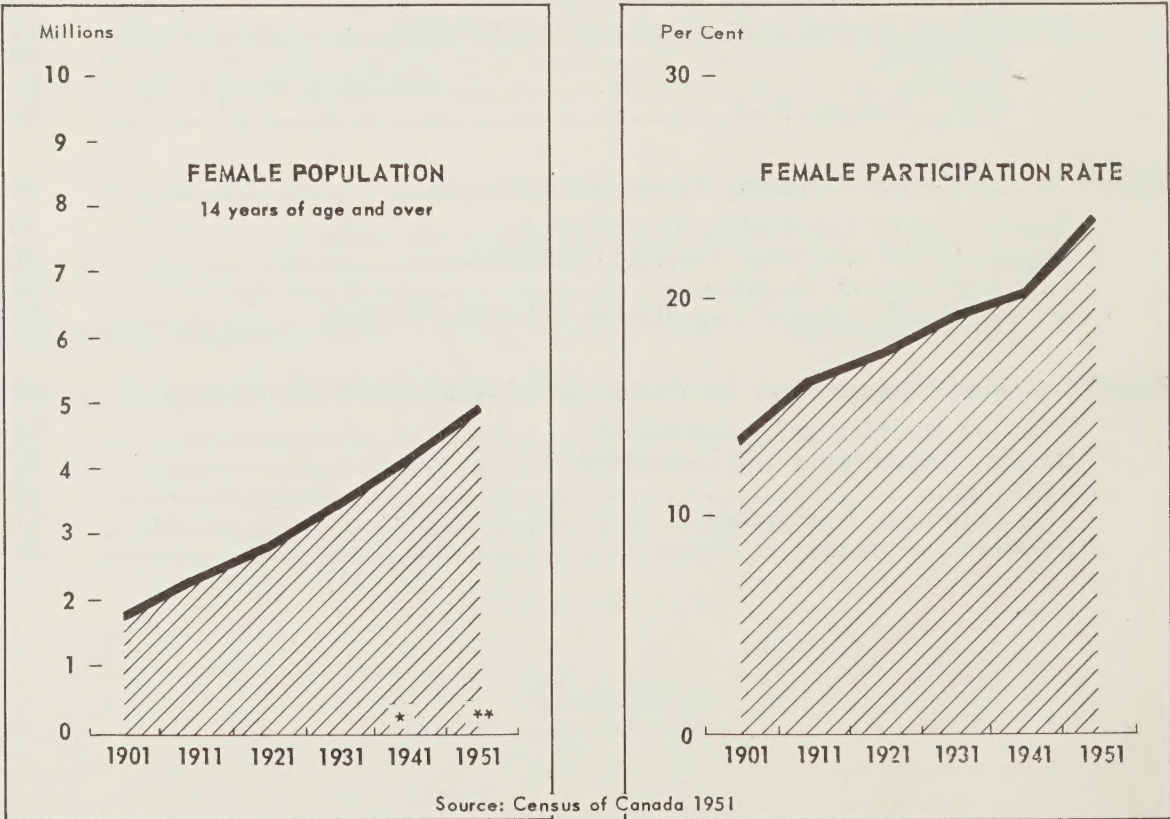
... NEARLY FIVE TIMES AS MANY WOMEN ARE WORKING  
IN CANADA NOW AS 50 YEARS AGO. ...



... Population growth accounted  
for part of this increase ...

... More important was the growth in  
the percentage of women in the  
labour force ...

... BY 1951, EVERY FOURTH WOMAN IN CANADA WAS WORKING ...



\*Excluding persons on active service.  
\*\*Including Newfoundland.



# Part I—Composition of the Female Labour Force

## 1. Increase in Number of Women at Work

A dramatic increase has occurred in the number of women in the Canadian labour force in the course of the past fifty years. This has been due partly to the growth of the Canadian population; the largest contributing factor, however, has been the very great increase in job opportunities for women.

It was during the two World Wars especially that women made most progress in proving their value as workers. Acute manpower shortages in those years encouraged the hiring of women for many jobs previously held exclusively by men. Women workers are now recognized as an important part of the working force.

Many of the economic and social changes highlighting the past half-century have played a part in the growth of the number of women workers. The increasing complexity of production processes and the resulting dilution of skills has meant the replacement of craftsmen by operatives, many of whom are women. The growth of record-keeping and a myriad of office jobs opened up a major field of employment for women. In addition, the shortening of working hours and the prevalence of the five-day week have permitted many women, particularly those who are married, to take jobs that they otherwise would have found impossible to accept. Finally, the development of mechanical aids such as washing machines, vacuum cleaners and other household appliances, and the evolution of prepared, frozen and pre-cooked foods have helped to reduce housework for many women and freed them for employment outside the home.

The result of these changes is that there were five times as many women in the Canadian labour force in 1951 as in 1901. Since 1951, the number of women workers has increased by an estimated 177,000. This was mostly due to the further growth of the female population, although job opportunities also expanded substantially.

This increase has had a marked influence on the Canadian labour force as a whole; in 1901, scarcely more than one worker in ten was a woman whereas today every fourth worker in Canada is a woman.

Female Population and Labour Force in Canada  
14 Years of Age and Over  
(thousands)

	Female Population	Female Labour Force	Participation Rate <sup>1</sup>
1901 .....	1,761	238	13.5
1911 .....	2,274	365	16.1
1921 .....	2,843	489	17.2
1931 .....	3,481	665	19.1
1941 .....	4,133	833 <sup>2</sup>	20.2
1951 <sup>3</sup> .....	4,933	1,164	23.6

<sup>1</sup>The labour force participation rate is the labour force expressed as a percentage of population.

<sup>2</sup>Excluding persons on active service.

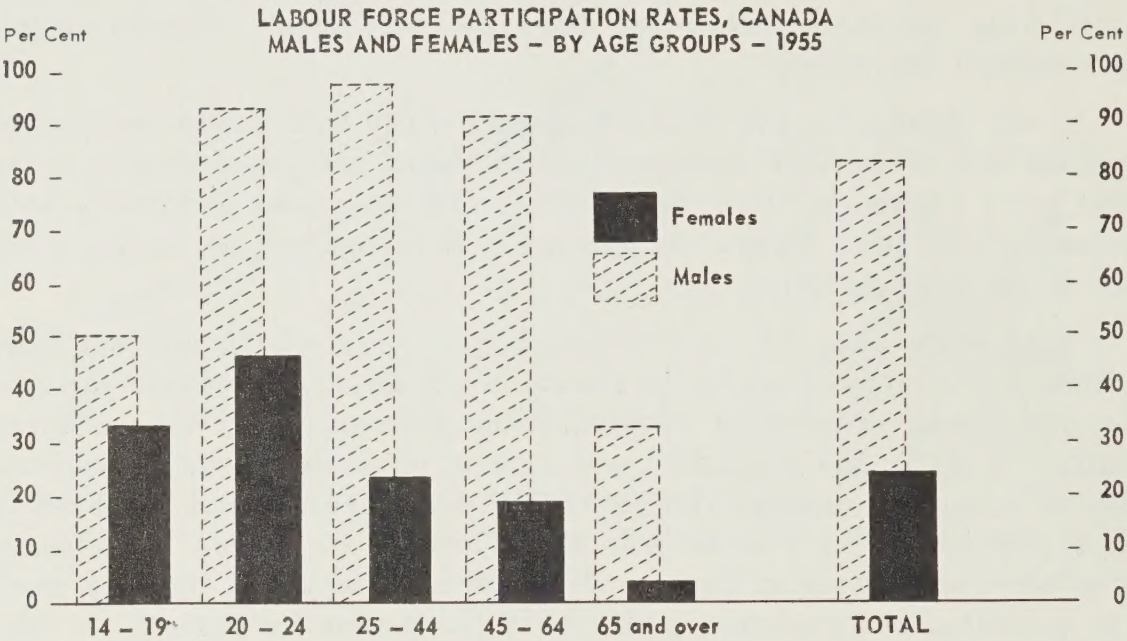
<sup>3</sup>Including Newfoundland.

Source: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. IV, Table 1.*



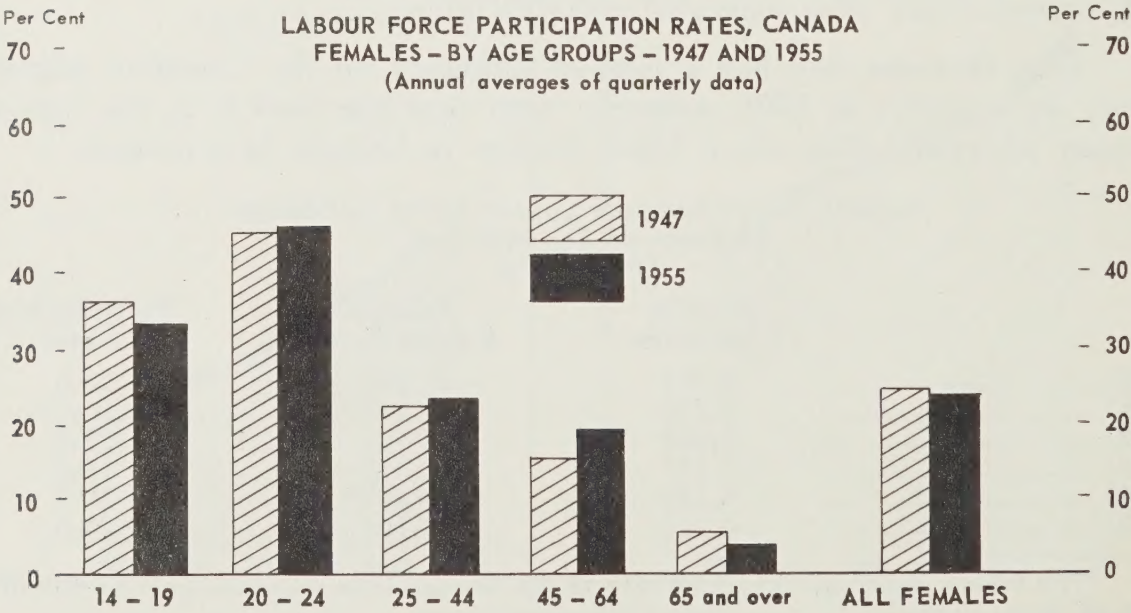
. . . . .WOMEN ARE MOST LIKELY TO BE IN THE LABOUR FORCE  
WHEN THEY ARE 20-24 YEARS OLD. . . . .

. . . . .MEN REACH THEIR PEAK LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION  
WHEN THEY ARE 25-44 YEARS OF AGE. . . . .



. . . . .BETWEEN 1947 AND 1955. . . . .

. . . . .THE PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN WORKING HAS  
INCREASED MOST FOR AGE GROUP 45-64. . . . .



Source: Labour Force Survey, DBS.



## 2. Pattern of Women's Employment by Age

The age composition of the female labour force throws interesting light on the character of women's employment in Canada. In June 1956, about 18 per cent of the women in the labour force were between 14 and 19 years of age; 19 per cent were 20 to 24; 40 per cent were 25 to 44; 21 per cent were 45 to 64, and about 2 per cent were 65 years of age or older. These proportions vary slightly from one month to another. For example, in the 14 to 19 age group, the proportion increases in June when students take summer jobs and drops again in September when they return to school. There is some fluctuation in the older age group also, since many women take temporary jobs in the fruit and vegetable harvesting seasons or are hired for short periods during the Christmas and Easter seasons.

Female Labour Force, by Age, June 1956

Years of Age	Number (thousands)	Percentage of Total
14 - 19 .....	238	17.7
20 - 24 .....	255	19.0
25 - 44 .....	542	40.4
45 - 64 .....	281	21.0
65 and over .....	25	1.9
Total .....	1,341	100.0

Source: *Labour Force Survey, June 1956, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

At all age levels the percentage of women in the population who are working is much less than that of men. Women are most likely to be working when they are from 20 to 24 years of age, while for men the time of greatest participation in the labour force comes when they are between 25 and 44 years of age. Most women between 25 and 44, on the other hand, are occupied with home responsibilities; the proportion of women in this age group working outside the home is only about half as great as for the previous one.

During the past ten years, several changes have been taking place in the labour force participation of women of different ages. The most important has been the increase in the proportion of women between the ages of 45 and 64 who are in the labour force. These are mainly women whose families have grown up or whose home responsibilities no longer require their full attention. Many have taken jobs for the first time.

In 1947, only about 15 per cent of the women between the ages of 45 and 64 had a job or were looking for one. By 1955, 19 per cent were in the labour force, a greater increase than for any other age group. The rise stemmed largely from two factors: first, the manpower shortages of the Second World War helped to break down the traditional prejudice against the employment of married women and second, flourishing post-war economic conditions steadily increased the number of jobs available to women desiring work. Prosperous economic conditions were accompanied by a general decline in hours of work and some increase in the availability of part-time jobs.

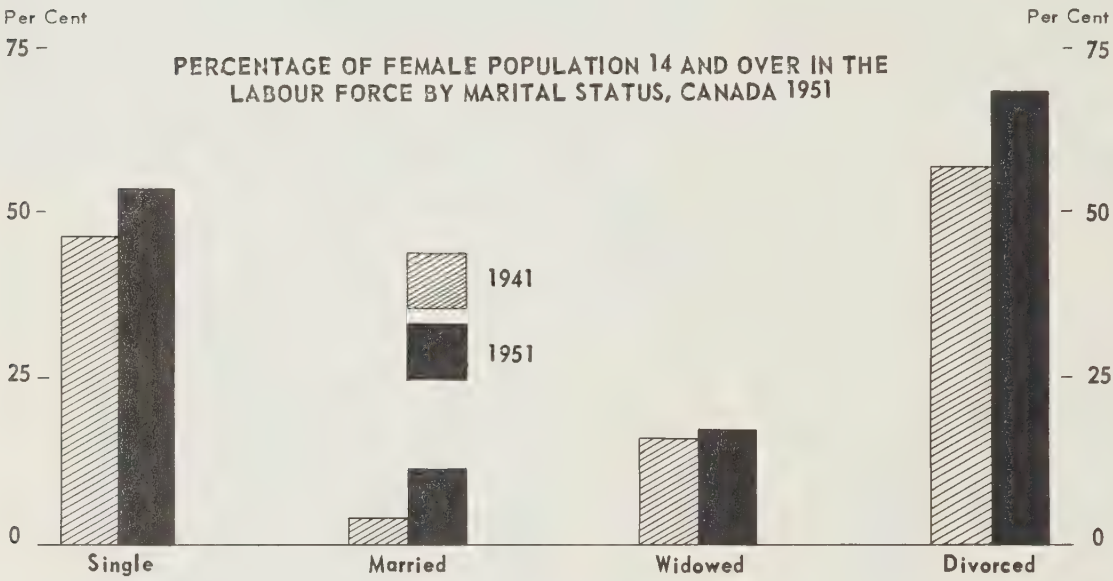


. . . . .TEN YEARS AGO. . . . .

. . . . .ONLY ONE MARRIED WOMAN IN 20 WAS WORKING. . . . .

. . . . .TO-DAY. . . . .

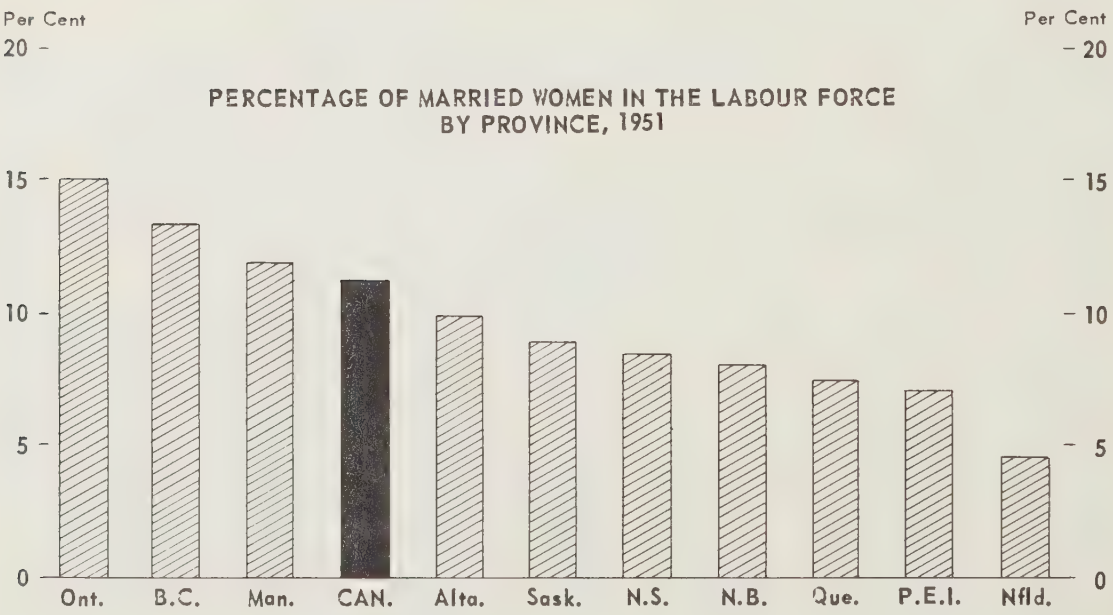
. . . . .ONE IN EVERY 10 IS IN THE LABOUR FORCE. . . . .



. . . . .MARRIED WOMEN WORKERS ARE MOST NUMEROUS  
IN PROVINCES WHERE. . . . .

. . . . .MANUFACTURING AND TRADE ARE MOST  
PREDOMINANT. . . . .

. . . . .FAMILIES ARE SMALLEST. . . . .



Source: Labour Force Survey, DBS.



The introduction of old age pension programs and the steady development of other social security measures are among the developments that have enabled many women 65 years of age and over to stop working. By 1955, one-third fewer women in this age group were working than in 1947.

At the other end of the age scale, the proportion of working girls between 14 and 19 has also grown smaller. In 1947, nearly 37 per cent of all teen-age girls were in the labour force. Since then, larger numbers have tended to remain in school longer or to take additional training before looking for jobs. By 1955, only about 33 per cent of the girls in this age group were in the labour force. This represented a decrease in participation of about one-tenth.

Percentage of the Population in the Labour Force by Age Group  
(Annual averages of quarterly data)

Years of Age	Females		Males
	1947	1955	1955
14 - 19 .....	36.6	33.3	50.1
20 - 24 .....	45.3	46.2	93.0
25 - 44 .....	22.9	23.7	97.7
45 - 64 .....	15.5	19.0	92.0
65 and over .....	5.7	4.0	32.8
Total.....	24.1	23.9	82.4

Source: *Labour Force Survey, Reference Paper No. 58, Dominion Bureau of Statistics for 1947 data; appropriate DBS Labour Force Bulletins for 1955 figures. Data averaged for two nearest months in case of the first two and last quarters of 1955 to maintain comparability with quarterly dates of 1947 information.*

### 3. Increase in the Number of Married Women Workers

The most outstanding change in women's employment in Canada during the last fifteen years has been the increased participation of married women in the labour force.

In 1941, one married woman in 20 was working; by 1951, more than one in ten had a job. This trend began during the Second World War. In those years, because of the state of emergency and the acute manpower shortages, employers who might not have done so otherwise began hiring married women.

Since the war, the sharp increase in married women workers has continued and the census statistics on women wage-earners (i.e., all persons who worked for wages, salary, piece rates, etc.) highlight the change. In 1951, 46 per cent of the 35-44 year-old women wage earners were married, compared with only 17 per cent in 1941. In the younger age groups, the change was even more marked. By 1951, nearly 39 per cent of the women wage earners between 25 and 34 years of age were married, compared with 13 per cent ten years before. Of the 20 to 24 age group, which comprises the largest number of working women, about 19 per cent of the women wage-earners were married in 1951, compared with only 5 per cent in 1941.

The growth in the number of available jobs, however, has resulted in a striking increase in the proportion of women in the population who are



working for pay, no matter what their marital status. Roughly 46 per cent of all the single women in the country were working in 1941; ten years later, nearly 54 per cent had jobs. The proportion of widows working increased only slightly during the 10-year period.

Percentage of Female Population in the Labour Force, by Marital Status (thousands of persons, 14 years of age and over)						
	1941			1951		
	Popu- la- tion	Labour Force	Percent of Population in Labour Force	Popu- la- tion	Labour Force	Percent of Population in Labour Force
Single.....	1,435	666	46.4	1,343	723	53.8
Married.....	2,333	106	4.5	3,115	349	11.2
Widowed.....	354	57	16.1	456	79	17.3
Divorced.....	7	4	57.1	19	13	68.4

Source: *Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour. Based on original data in Census of Canada, 1941, Vol. III, Table 7; Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. II, Tables 1 and 2; Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901-1951, Tables 1 and 12, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

### Provincial Distribution

The proportion of married women working outside the home varies considerably from one province of Canada to another. In provinces where manufacturing and trade are more highly developed, and the population is more concentrated in cities, opportunities for employment are more plentiful, and a larger proportion of the married women are working. Ontario and British Columbia, for example, both highly urbanized, have the highest proportion of married women at work—15 and 13.3 per cent respectively.

It should be noted, however, that in many rural areas throughout the country, married women are helping their husbands operate farms, stores or other businesses but are not drawing any pay and are therefore not always included in the census statistics.

The size of the family also has an influence on the proportion of married women at work. The provinces with the largest number of persons per family—Newfoundland, 4.4; Quebec, 4.2; New Brunswick, 4.1;

	Percentage of Married Women Working, 1951	Average Number of Persons per Family, 1951 <sup>1</sup>
Ontario.....	15.0	3.4
British Columbia.....	13.3	3.3
Manitoba.....	11.9	3.6
Alberta.....	9.9	3.7
Saskatchewan.....	8.9	3.7
Nova Scotia.....	8.4	3.9
New Brunswick.....	8.0	4.1
Quebec.....	7.4	4.2
Prince Edward Island.....	7.1	4.0
Newfoundland.....	4.6	4.4
Canada.....	11.2	3.7

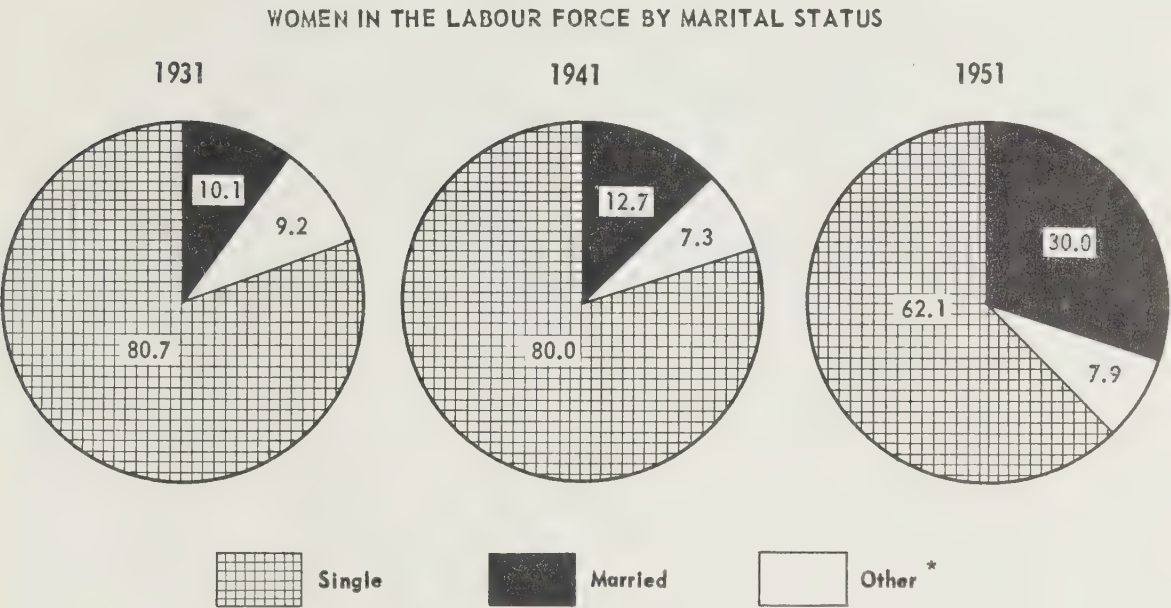
<sup>1</sup>For census purposes, the family consists of husband and wife, or one parent, together with their unmarried children living together in the same dwelling.

Source: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. II, Table 2 and Vol. III, Table 134.*



. . . . . BY 1951, ONE-THIRD OF THE WOMEN  
IN THE LABOUR FORCE WERE MARRIED. . . . .

. . . . .THE BIG CHANGE BEGAN DURING THE SECOND WORLD WAR. . . . .



. . . . .SINCE THE WAR, THE NUMBER OF WORKING WIVES  
HAS CONTINUED TO INCREASE STEADILY. . . . .



\*Includes widowed, divorced and separated.  
Source: Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901 – 1951, D B S; Labour Force Survey, D B S



and Prince Edward Island, 4.0—also have the smallest proportion of married women working—Newfoundland, 4.6 per cent; Quebec, 7.4 per cent; New Brunswick, 8.0 per cent; and Prince Edward Island, 7.1 per cent.

#### 4. Marital Composition of the Female Labour Force

Single women have always formed an important element of the Canadian labour force. Despite the changes in the female working force during the past twenty-five years, more than half the women at work in Canada are single.

At the same time, married women have been playing an increasingly important role, for not only have job opportunities for women increased substantially in the last twenty-five years but a larger percentage of women are married now than ever before, and women have been marrying at an earlier average age than in the 1930's.

In 1931, about 10 per cent of the women in the labour force were married and in the following ten years, the proportion increased only to 13 per cent. During the war, however, the number of married women who took jobs outside the home rose sharply so that by 1946, about 29 per cent of the working women in Canada were married.

Since then, more women in the labour force have married and kept on working. Even more marked, as has already been noted, is the trend of many older married women returning to work after their families have grown up. By 1956, married women comprised more than 38 per cent of the female labour force.

The proportion of women in the labour force who are widowed, divorced or separated has shown little change.

Marital Status of Women in the Labour Force<sup>1</sup>  
(percentage distribution at June 1 of each year)

	Single	Married	Other <sup>2</sup>
1931.....	80.7	10.1	9.2
1941.....	80.0	12.7	7.3
1951.....	62.1	30.0	7.9
1946.....	63.1	28.8	8.1
1947.....	62.7	28.0	9.3
1948.....	61.0	29.5	9.5
1949.....	61.1	29.2	9.7
1950.....	60.8	29.5	9.7
1951.....	58.9	31.8	9.3
1952.....	58.0	32.6	9.4
1953 <sup>3</sup> .....	56.5	33.7	9.8
1954.....	54.2	36.0	9.8
1955.....	52.7	36.9	10.4
1956.....	51.0	38.7	10.3

<sup>1</sup>Data for 1931–1951 refer to the labour force; data for subsequent years refer to persons with jobs.

<sup>2</sup>Includes widowed and divorced for 1931–1951; for these years, those separated are included with the married. "Other" includes separated for 1946–1956.

<sup>3</sup>Data for 1953–1956, averaged for May and June to maintain comparability with previous years.

Source: *Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901–1951, Table 9; The Labour Force, Reference Paper No. 58, Table 10; and monthly Labour Force Bulletins, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*



## Part II — Occupations of Women

The occupational picture of women at work in Canada is examined from two points of view.

First, attention is directed to the distribution of women in each of the main occupational groups in Canada and the proportion of women to all workers in these groups. Each main group covers a number of individual occupations. For example, the clerical group includes stenographers, typists, office clerks, etc.; the personal service group includes domestic workers, waitresses, cleaners and dyers, hairdressers, etc.; the trade and finance group includes sales clerks, insurance agents, etc.; and the transportation and communication group includes telephone and telegraph operators.

Second, twenty individual occupations in each of which 10,000 or more women are employed are analysed in greater detail.

### 1. Occupational Distribution of Women

The past fifty years have seen some remarkable changes in women's work in Canada. At the beginning of the century, working women used many of the same skills on the job as they used in their homes. For example, large numbers were employed as seamstresses, milliners or domestic servants. By 1951, however, many women with jobs were using completely different skills; they were stenographers, clerks, salesladies or telephone operators. In the professional group, however, most women in 1951, as in 1901, were teaching or nursing.

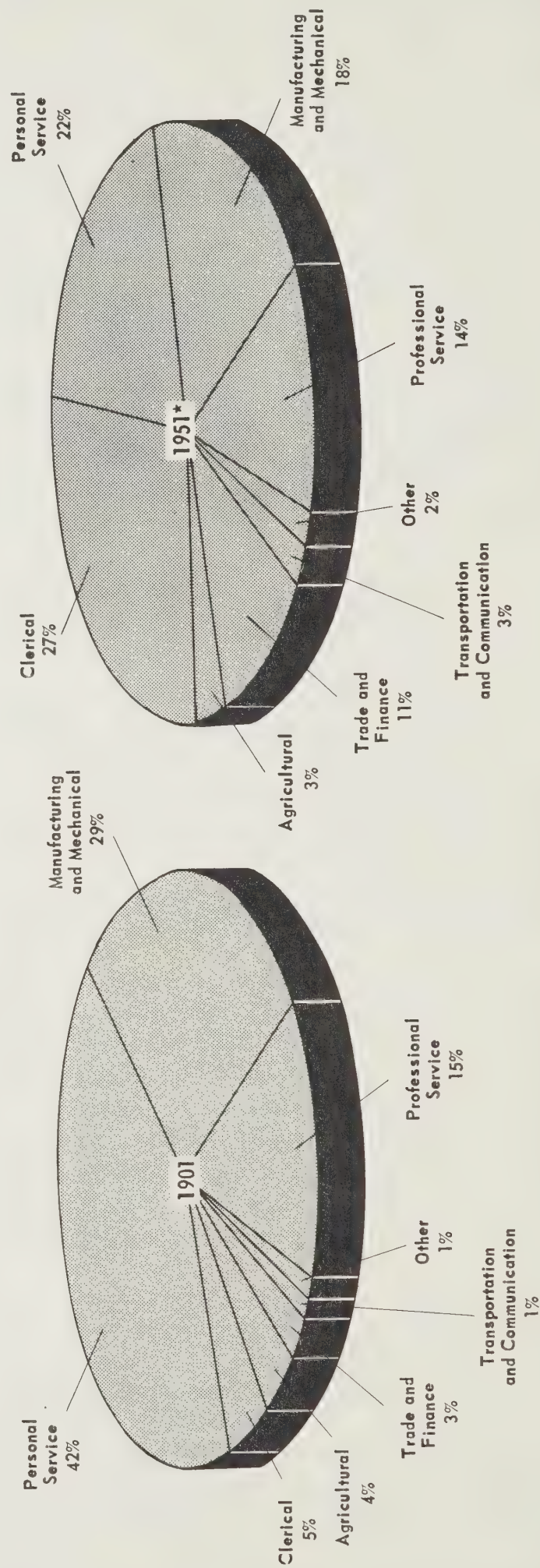
Fifty years ago, the most important field of employment for women was personal service and nearly half the working women were in this occupational group. By 1951, less than one-quarter of the women at work were holding this type of job. It is difficult to specify any one reason for this change, but the increase in the number and variety of available jobs was probably the largest contributing factor. In addition, the great technological advances made in the field of household appliances, together with subtle changes in attitudes towards domestic service as a field of work have also been strong influences.

The principal field of employment for women at present is the business office. The growth of the country in the past fifty years brought with it a vast increase in all kinds of record-keeping and office work. The number of office jobs available was continually increasing and women soon began to be considered particularly suitable to these occupations. In 1951, one working woman out of every three was employed in some form of office work. In 1901, only one in twenty had a clerical or stenographic job.



..... BETWEEN 1901 AND 1951 .....

- ..... THE PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN WORKERS IN WHITE COLLAR JOBS INCREASED GREATLY
- ..... THE PERCENTAGE DOING MANUAL WORK DECREASED CONSIDERABLY
- ..... THE PERCENTAGE DOING PROFESSIONAL WORK REMAINED THE SAME



Source: Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901 - 1951, D B S

\*Excluding Newfoundland, Yukon and North West Territories.



The proportion of the female working force in commercial and communications jobs—mainly as sales clerks and telephone and telegraph operators—has also increased considerably during the half-century, although the numbers involved are still relatively small.

Factory workers, on the other hand, who comprised almost one-third of the female labour force in 1901, accounted for less than one-fifth in 1951.

Percentage Distribution of Women in the Labour Force  
by Occupational Groups, 1901 and 1951

Occupational Group	Number of Women		Percentage Distribution	
	1901	1951 <sup>1</sup>	1901	1951
Clerical.....	12,600	314,600	5.0	27.0
Personal service .....	100,300	248,800	42.0	22.0
Manufacturing and mechanical.....	70,500	201,600	30.0	18.0
Professional service.....	34,700	163,700	15.0	14.0
Trade and finance .....	7,800	126,900	3.0	11.0
Transportation and communication.....	1,300	39,500	1.0	3.0
Agricultural .....	8,900	32,400	4.0	3.0
Other .....	1,800	19,700	1.0	2.0
Total .....	237,900	1,147,200	100.0	100.0

<sup>1</sup>Excluding Newfoundland, Yukon and Northwest Territories.

Source: *Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901-1951, Table 5, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

## 2. Women as a Proportion of All Workers in Various Occupational Groups

The growth in the number of working women has increased their predominance in some occupational groups and given them a strong foothold in others.

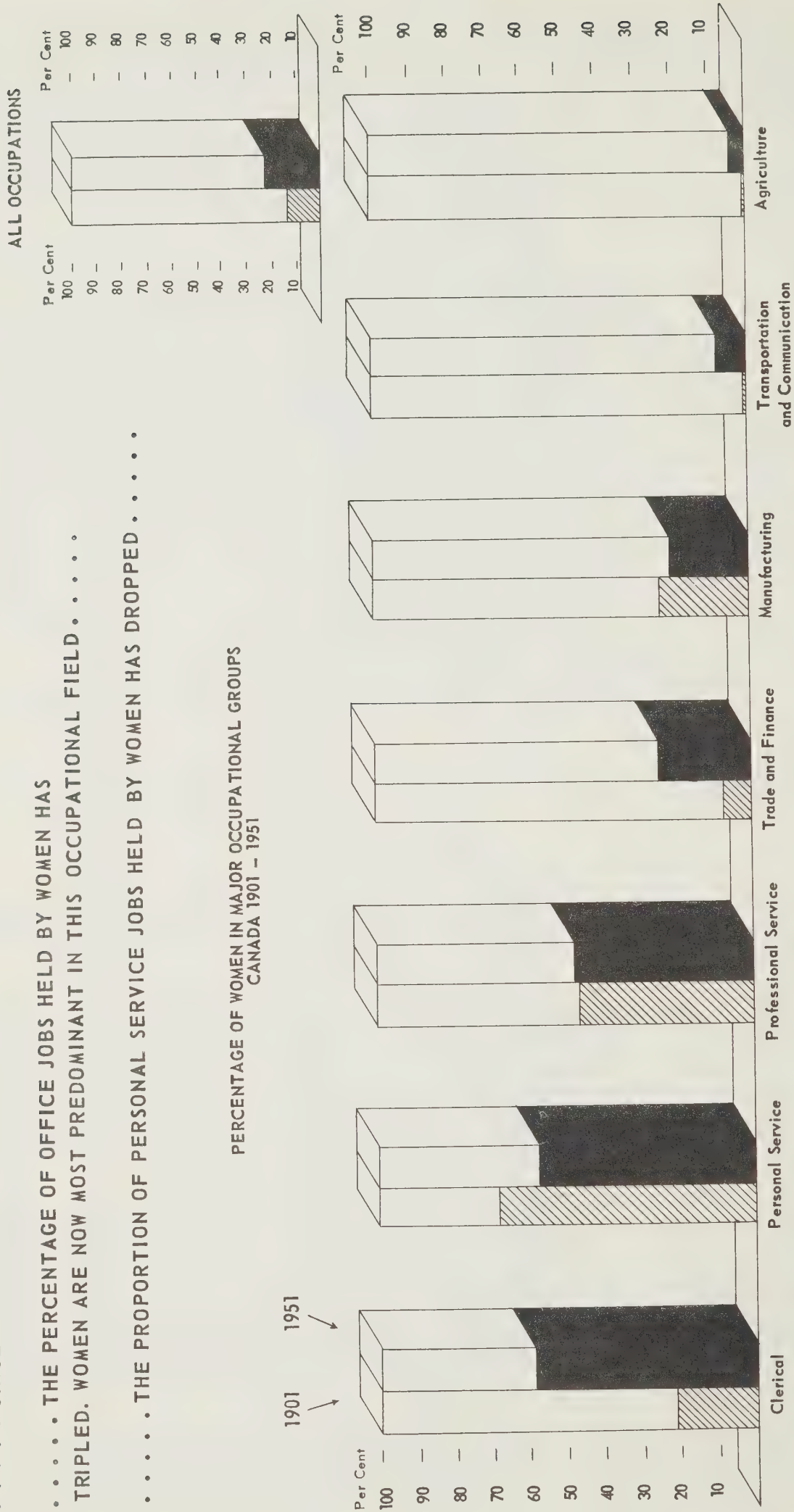
In certain occupations, however, that have long been traditionally recognized as “women’s jobs”, the proportion of women has changed very little. For example, roughly 47 per cent of the people in professional jobs were women in 1951, about the same proportion as in 1901. School teachers and nurses make up about three-quarters of the number of women in professional jobs.

In the clerical occupations, on the other hand, the picture is quite different. In 1901, office jobs were largely held by men. In fact, only about 21 per cent of the stenographers, clerks or other office workers were women; by 1951, this proportion had climbed to just over 58 per cent. This was not only because the number and variety of office jobs had increased tremendously, but also because these occupations had acquired the attribute of being women’s jobs.

In the commercial field, of which sales clerks form a very large part, the proportion of women employed increased from less than one in



. . . . . SINCE 1901 . . . . .  
 . . . . . THE PERCENTAGE OF OFFICE JOBS HELD BY WOMEN HAS  
 TRIPLED. WOMEN ARE NOW MOST PREDOMINANT IN THIS OCCUPATIONAL FIELD . . . . .  
 . . . . . THE PROPORTION OF PERSONAL SERVICE JOBS HELD BY WOMEN HAS DROPPED . . . . .





twelve to nearly one in four. Again, this was partly due to the fact that nowadays the hiring of women as sales clerks is common practice, whereas fifty years ago, sales clerks were almost exclusively men.

Telephone and telegraph operators, a large proportion of the transportation and communication group of occupations, are also now almost entirely women, although in earlier years men occupied almost all these jobs. The result has been that, despite the small number of women involved, their proportion to the total number of people employed in transportation and communication jobs has increased from less than 2 per cent in 1901 to more than 8 per cent in 1951.

On the other hand, women have tended to move away from personal service jobs. Nearly 68 per cent of the people in the personal service group of occupations in 1901 were women; by 1951, the percentage had dropped to 57, although these occupations still ranked second as a field of employment for women.

Women also formed a slightly smaller proportion of the manufacturing labour force—21 per cent in 1951, compared with 24 per cent in 1901.

Percentage of Workers in Major Occupational Groups, 1901 and 1951

	1901		1951	
	Women per cent	Men	Women per cent	Men
Clerical.....	21.4	78.6	58.1	41.9
Personal service .....	67.7	32.3	57.0	43.0
Professional service.....	46.7	53.3	47.6	52.4
Trade and finance .....	7.8	92.2	24.4	75.6
Manufacturing.....	23.5	76.5	20.6	79.4
Transportation and communication .....	1.6	98.4	8.1	91.9
Agricultural.....	1.2	98.8	3.9	96.1
All occupations .....	13.3	86.7	22.1	77.9

Source: *Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901-1951, Table 5, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

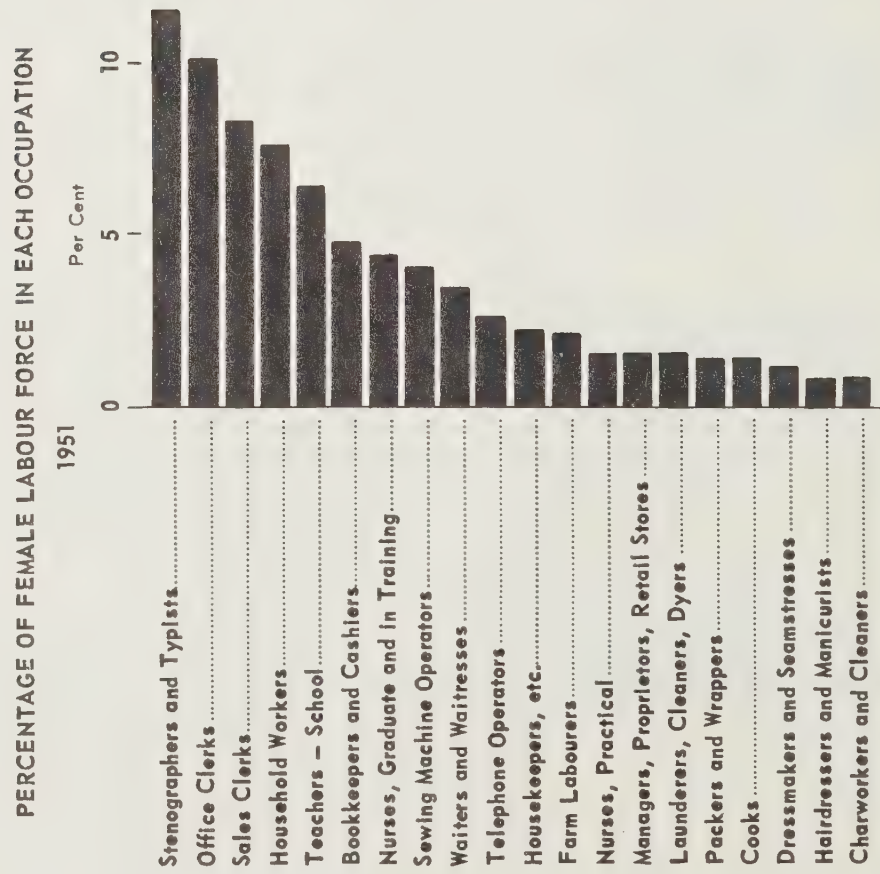
### 3. Leading Occupations for Women

The important occupations for women in Canada are also usually those in which they outnumber men. Of the twenty occupations in which more than 10,000 women were employed in 1951, only five employed fewer women than men. In the remaining fifteen, women not only outnumbered men but in several cases—stenographers, nurses, telephone operators, dressmakers—they comprised practically the entire working force. These twenty leading occupations accounted for more than three-quarters of the entire female labour force.

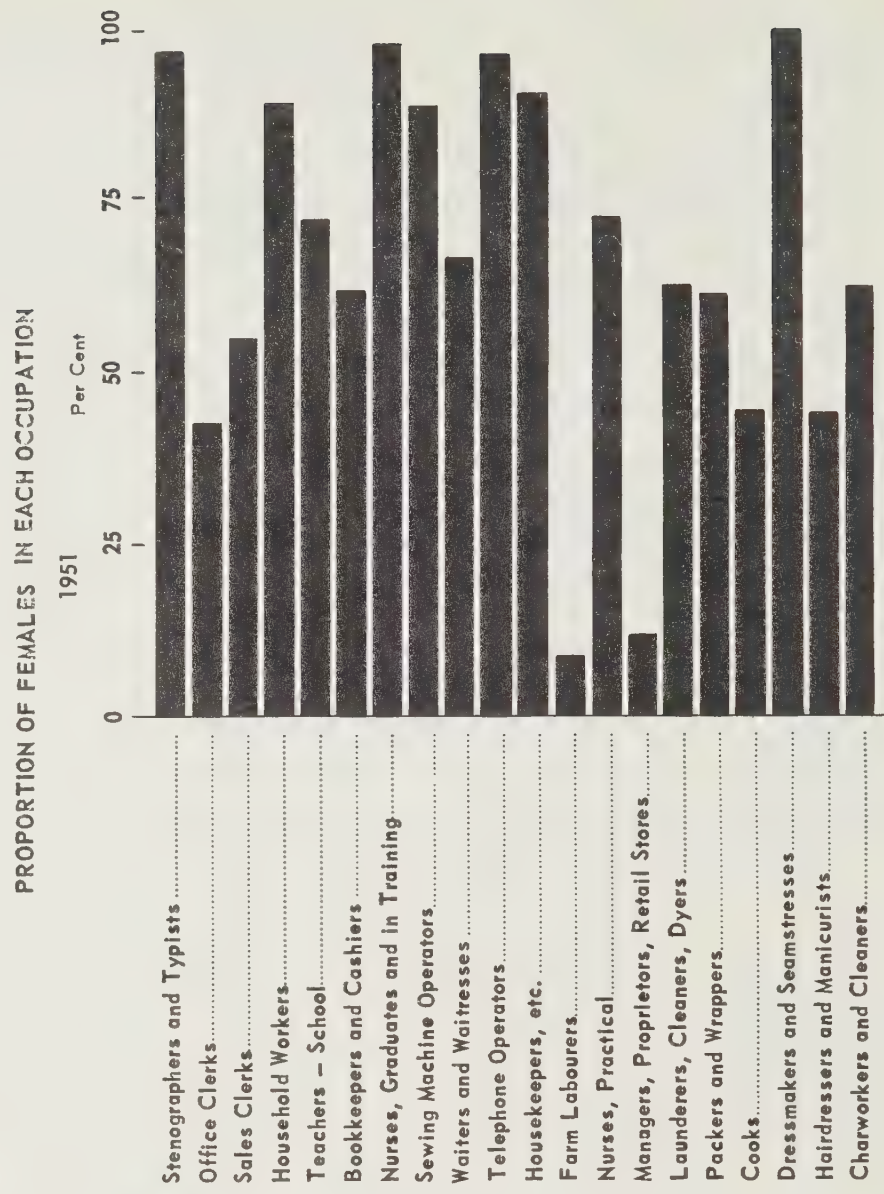
Nearly half the women at work, however, were concentrated in six main occupations and had jobs as either stenographers and typists, office clerks, sales clerks, household workers, school teachers or bookkeepers and cashiers. Of these, only the office clerks were outnumbered by men.



.....HALF THE WOMEN AT WORK  
ARE EMPLOYED IN SIX MAIN OCCUPATIONS.....



.....IN MOST OF THE OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH  
LARGE NUMBERS OF WOMEN ARE EMPLOYED,  
THEY OUTNUMBER THE MEN.....





It is significant that, despite the great increase in the number of women working, most of them are still employed in fields that have been traditionally or have come to be considered the special domains of women.

#### Leading Occupations of Women in Canada, 1951

Occupation	No. of Women Employed (thousands)	Percentage in the Occupation Composed of Women	Percentage of the Female Labour Force
Stenographers and typists .....	133	96.4	11.4
Office clerks .....	118	42.7	10.1
Sales clerks .....	95	55.1	8.2
Household workers .....	89	89.1	7.6
School teachers .....	76	72.1	6.5
Bookkeepers and cashiers .....	55	61.9	4.7
Nurses, graduate and in training .....	50	98.2	4.3
Sewing machine operators .....	46	88.9	4.0
Waiters and waitresses .....	41	66.7	3.5
Telephone operators .....	30	96.5	2.6
Housekeepers, etc. ....	26	90.9	2.2
Farm labourers .....	24	8.7	2.1
Nurses, practical .....	18	72.4	1.5
Proprietors and managers, retail trade ....	18	12.3	1.5
Launderers, cleaners and dyers .....	17	63.1	1.5
Packers and wrappers .....	16	62.3	1.4
Cooks .....	16	44.5	1.4
Dressmakers and seamstresses .....	14	100.0	1.2
Hairdressers and manicurists .....	11	44.4	0.9
Charworkers and cleaners .....	11	63.7	0.9
Total, 20 occupations .....	904	—	77.7
Total female labour force .....	1,164	—	100.0

Source: *Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901-1951, Tables 7 and 8, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

A number of interesting occupational changes have occurred, however, during the past 25 or 30 years. Although these involve only small numbers of women, they are particularly noteworthy because they indicate both the acquisition of new skills by women and the breaking down of prejudices against their employment in certain fields. The following table shows the increase in the number of women in several of these occupations since 1931.

#### Number of Women in Selected Occupations, 1931 - 1951

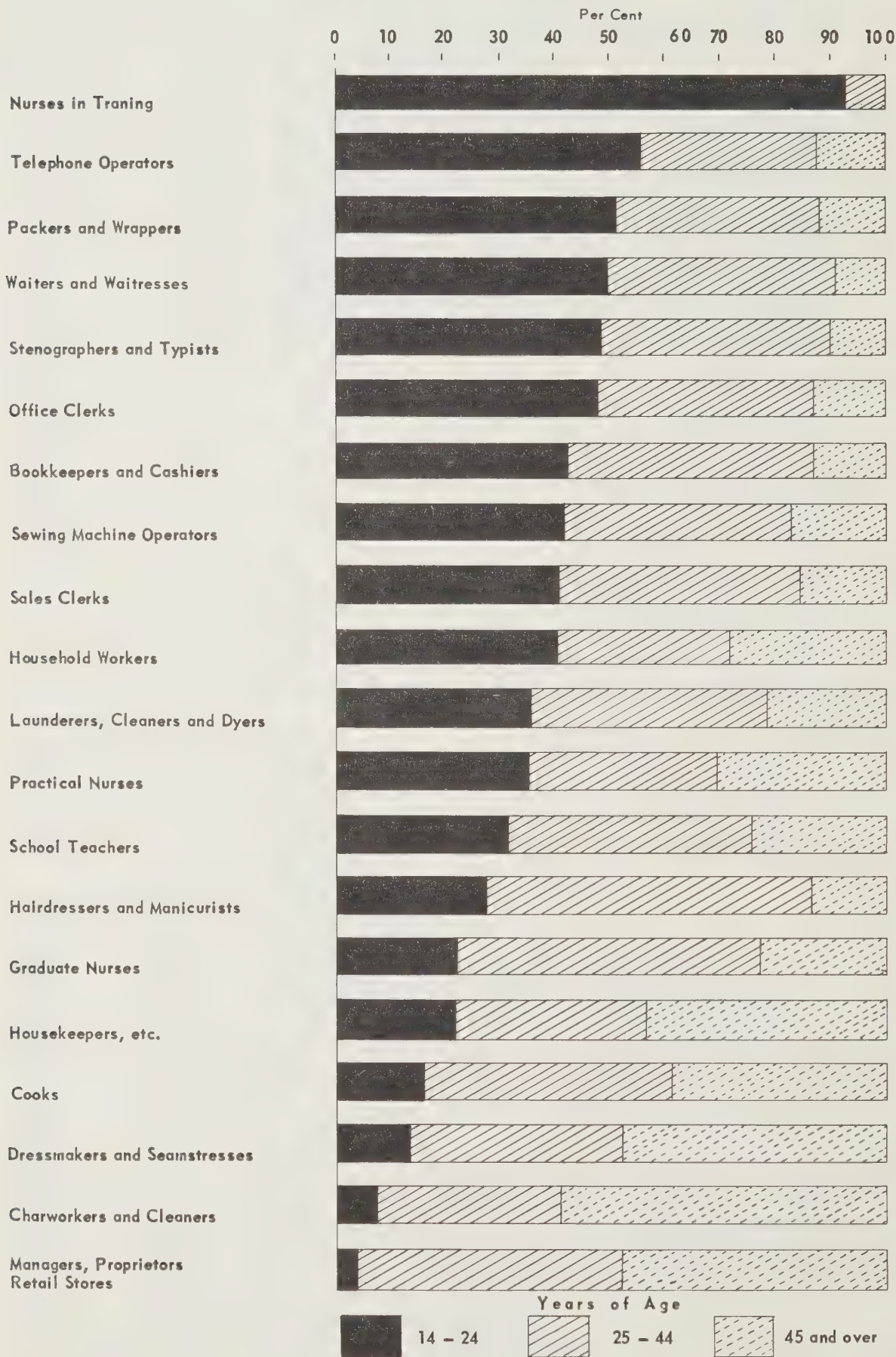
	1931	1941	1951
Owners, managers and officials in manufacturing	490	722	1,911
Authors, editors, journalists .....	464	713	1,621
Draughtsmen and designers .....	105	157	633
Physicians and surgeons .....	203	384	660
Professors and college principals .....	259	277	812
Wood turners, planers, etc. ....	98	101	588
Upholsterers .....	159	148	277
Chemists and metallurgists .....	118	264	876
Welders and flame cutters .....	—	239	487
Bakers .....	348	718	1,454
Chauffeurs and taxi drivers .....	—	63	275
Telegraph operators .....	749	548	1,021
Purchasing agents and buyers .....	260	494	1,142
Real estate agents and dealers .....	146	273	615
Mechanics and repairmen .....	8	278	746
Window decorators and dressers .....	169	221	724
Total labour force - female .....	665,000	833,000	1,164,000

Source: *Ibid.*, Tables 7 and 8.



. . . . .OFFICE JOBS AND NURSES IN TRAINING HAVE THE  
HIGHEST PROPORTION OF WOMEN UNDER 25 . . . . .

. . . . .SERVICE JOBS HAVE THE HIGHEST  
PROPORTION OF WOMEN OVER 45 . . . . .



Source: Census of Canada, 1951.

## 4. Age of Women in Leading Occupations

The 20 leading occupations for women in Canada fall into three main categories: (1) those in which most of the women are 24 years old or less; (2) those in which most of the women are 45 years old or more; and (3) those in which women of all age groups are fairly evenly distributed.

1. In 1951, younger women (between the ages of 14 and 24) formed the greatest part of the total

— in occupations where training is given on the job; 92 per cent of the nurses in training and 55 per cent of the telephone operators were 24 or under;

— in occupations where little or no training is required; 51 per cent of the packers and wrappers were 24 or under;

— in occupations where opportunities for employment for women have increased most rapidly in the past 25 or 30 years; 49 per cent of stenographers and typists and 48 per cent of office clerks were 24 or under.

2. Older women (45 years of age and over) formed the greatest proportion of the total

— in occupations where the skills used are similar to those used in the home and where the field has long been established as a woman's field; 59 per cent of the charworkers and cleaners and 44 per cent of the housekeepers and matrons were women 45 years old or over;

— in occupations where the job can be more satisfactorily combined with running a home; 48 per cent of both dressmakers and seamstresses and of proprietresses and managers were 45 years old or over.

3. Women between 25 and 44 were fairly evenly distributed through all 20 occupations and, with one or two exceptions, accounted for about 30 to 45 per cent of the women in each.

Age Distribution of Women in 20 Leading Occupations, 1951

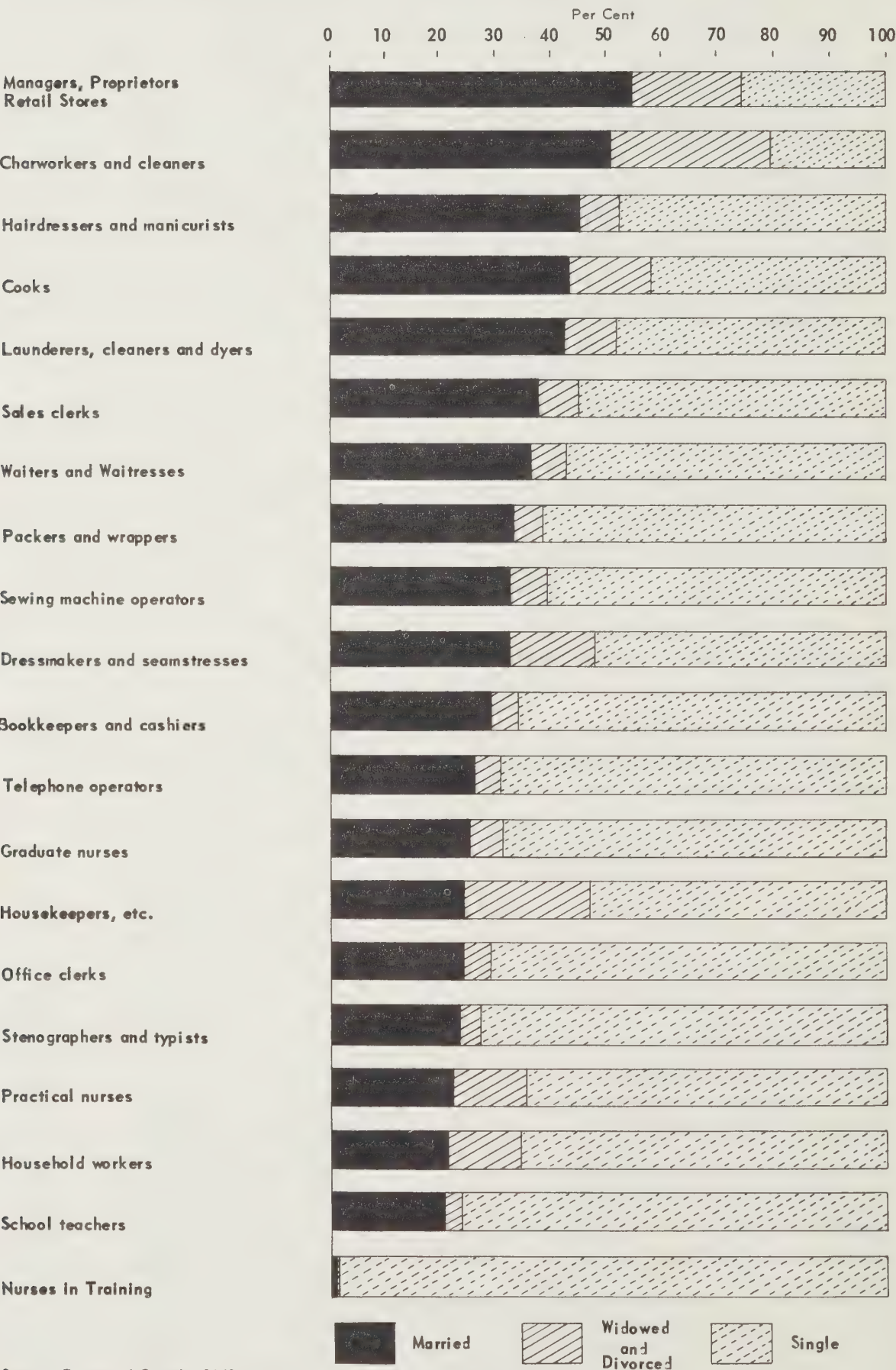
Occupation	14 – 24	Years of Age	
		25 – 44 (per cent)	45+
Nurses in training .....	92.3	7.6	0.1
Telephone operators .....	55.5	31.6	12.9
Packers and wrappers .....	51.0	37.0	12.0
Waiters and waitresses .....	49.4	41.2	9.4
Stenographers and typists .....	48.6	41.2	10.2
Office clerks .....	48.0	38.8	13.2
Bookkeepers and cashiers .....	42.5	44.3	13.2
Sewing machine operators .....	41.2	40.9	17.9
Sales clerks .....	40.9	43.0	16.1
Household workers .....	40.8	30.6	28.6
Launderers, cleaners and dyers .....	35.2	43.0	21.8
Practical nurses .....	35.0	34.7	30.2
School teachers .....	30.9	44.1	25.0
Hairdressers and manicurists .....	27.8	58.2	14.0
Graduate nurses .....	22.1	54.8	23.1
Housekeepers and matrons .....	21.8	34.3	43.9
Cooks .....	16.0	44.8	39.2
Dressmakers and seamstresses .....	13.4	38.5	48.1
Charworkers and cleaners .....	7.3	33.4	59.3
Proprietors and managers, retail trade .....	3.7	48.0	48.3

Source: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. IV, Table 11.*



. . . . OCCUPATIONS THAT USE HOUSEHOLD SKILLS OR THAT CAN BE EASILY COMBINED WITH RUNNING A HOME STILL HAVE THE LARGEST PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED WOMEN. . . . .

. . . . OFFICE JOBS, NURSING AND SCHOOL TEACHING HAVE THE LARGEST PERCENTAGE OF SINGLE WOMEN. . . . .



Source: Census of Canada, 1951.

## 5. Marital Status of Women in Leading Occupations

The kinds of jobs held by married women depend on many things, their education and training, their age, and their previous employment experience. Similarity to tasks involved in running a home, adaptability of hours and the possibility of fitting the job to family routines are also important factors in the occupations of married women.

For many years, married women workers were largely confined to service jobs using household skills (such domestic service tasks as cooking, cleaning, laundering and home nursing). Married women are still predominant in occupations such as these but the work now is usually done not in a private home but at a business establishment specializing in a particular service. In occupations such as hairdressing, cooking, and laundering, where the proportion of married women workers is relatively large, this is the case.

In recent years, however, married women workers in growing numbers have entered other types of work such as selling and office jobs of many kinds. For example, 38 per cent of all women sales clerks were married in 1951 and the proportion of bookkeepers and cashiers who were married was only slightly under 30 per cent.

The married woman often finds herself confined to service jobs because of her age and lack of any specialized skill. For other kinds of work, especially in offices, she usually is in competition with young women with high school and often business college education. On the other hand, many married women who have had previous employment in such occupations as stenography and typing, teaching and other professional work, have little difficulty in remaining in the labour force after marriage or re-entering it when their family has grown up.

Percentage Distribution of Women in 20 Leading Occupations  
by Marital Status, 1951

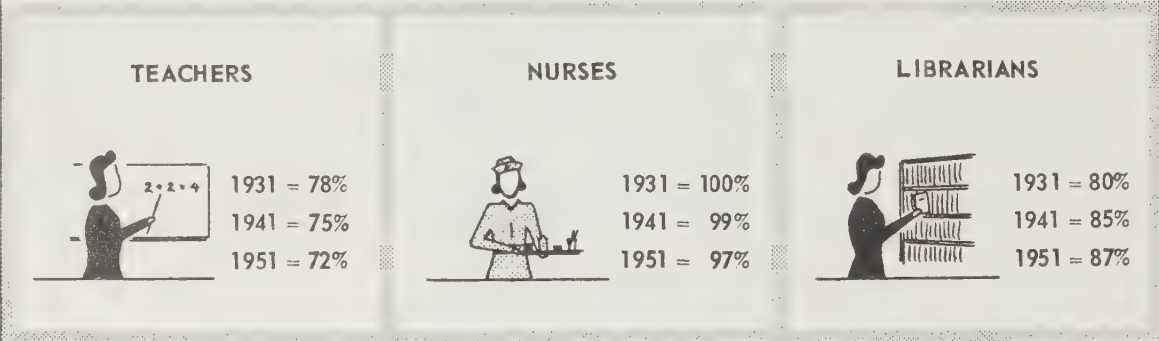
Occupation	Married	Widowed or Divorced	Single
Proprietors and managers, retail trade .....	54.6	19.7	25.7
Charworkers and cleaners .....	50.9	28.9	20.2
Hairdressers and manicurists .....	45.5	7.3	47.2
Cooks .....	43.6	15.1	41.3
Launderers, cleaners and dyers .....	42.9	9.0	48.1
Sales clerks .....	38.2	6.8	55.0
Waiters and waitresses .....	36.7	6.0	57.3
Packers and wrappers .....	33.4	5.5	61.1
Sewing machine operators .....	33.0	6.7	60.3
Dressmakers and seamstresses .....	32.3	15.8	51.9
Bookkeepers and cashiers .....	29.4	4.7	65.9
Telephone operators .....	26.2	4.6	69.2
Graduate nurses .....	25.3	5.8	68.9
Housekeepers, etc. ....	24.3	22.7	53.0
Office clerks .....	24.3	4.9	70.8
Stenographers and typists .....	23.7	3.7	72.6
Practical nurses .....	22.4	13.0	64.6
Household workers .....	21.6	12.9	65.5
School teachers .....	20.6	3.3	76.1
Nurses in training .....	0.8	0.3	98.9

Source: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. IV, Table 11.*



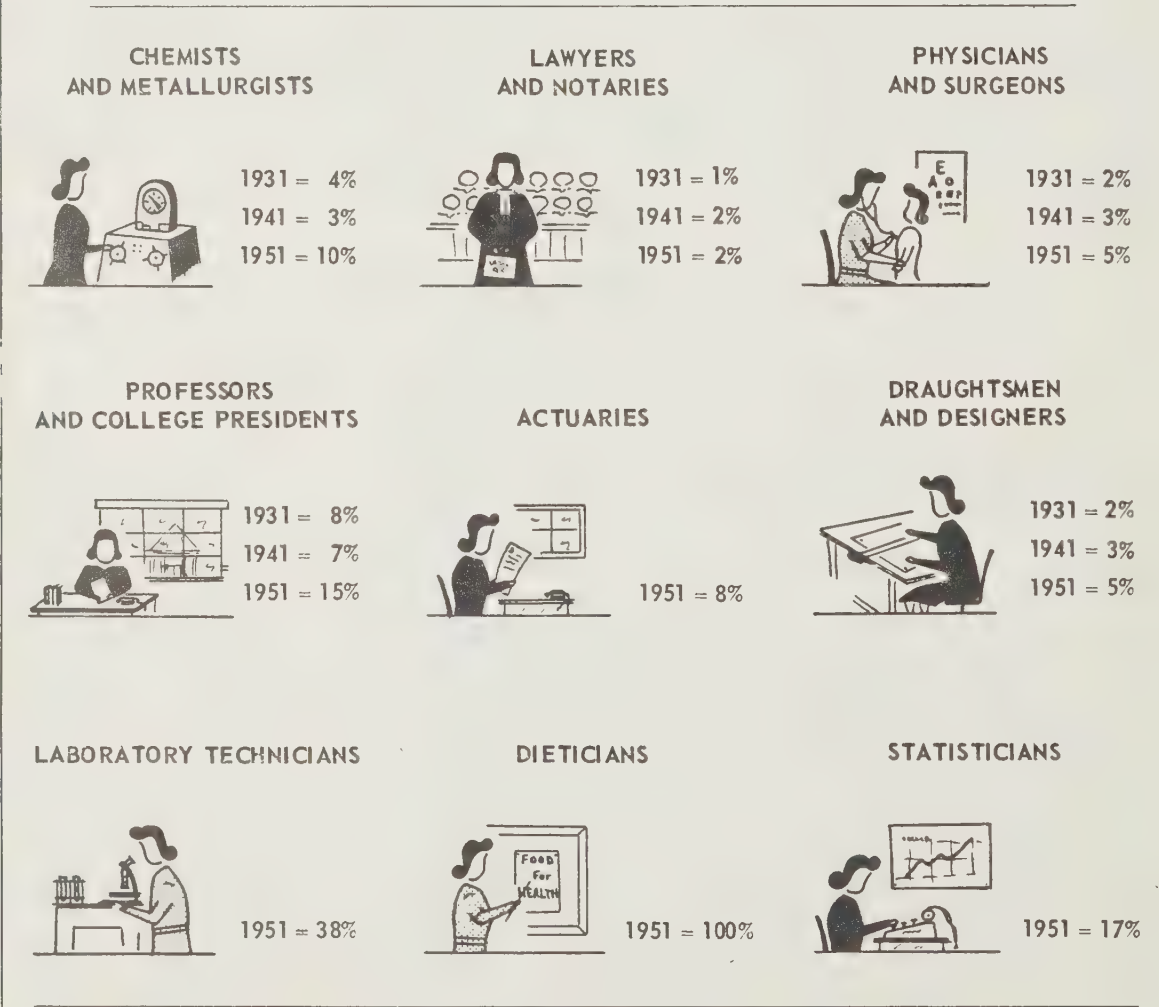
# WOMEN STILL PREDOMINATE . . . . .

. . . . . IN THE PROFESSIONS THAT HAVE  
ALWAYS BEEN TRADITIONALLY FEMININE



# IN THE PAST 25 YEARS . . . . .

. . . . . INCREASING NUMBERS HAVE ESTABLISHED  
THEMSELVES IN PROFESSIONS THAT USED TO BE MAINLY  
MEN'S OR HAVE ENTERED ENTIRELY NEW FIELDS



Percentages represent the proportion of women in the profession.  
Source: Census of Canada 1951; Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901-1951, DBS.

It should be noted that there has been a growing tendency in the last decade for women to continue work after marriage, often for many years. In such cases, the inroads made by women workers before marriage into new occupational fields are often held even after they take on added home responsibilities.

## 6. Women in the Professions

Most professional women in Canada are still in fields that have been traditionally feminine and in these professions they far outnumber men. In 1951, for example, 72 per cent of teachers, 97 per cent of nurses and 87 per cent of librarians in Canada were women. Dietitians, too, have always been almost exclusively women, although until 1951 the Census of Canada did not list them. Teachers and nurses together account for about 75 per cent of all professional women.

Growing numbers of women, however, are establishing themselves in professions that used to be almost exclusively men's. Between 1931 and 1951, the proportion of women physicians and surgeons grew from 2 to 5 per cent and of women chemists and metallurgists from 4 to 10 per cent.

Women have also entered entirely new fields in the last twenty years. Until 1951, the Census of Canada did not list laboratory technicians, statisticians or actuaries, yet in that year 38 per cent of the laboratory technicians, 17 per cent of the statisticians and 8 per cent of the actuaries were women.

Women were also earning their living as electrical and mechanical engineers, surveyors, veterinarians and dental mechanics.

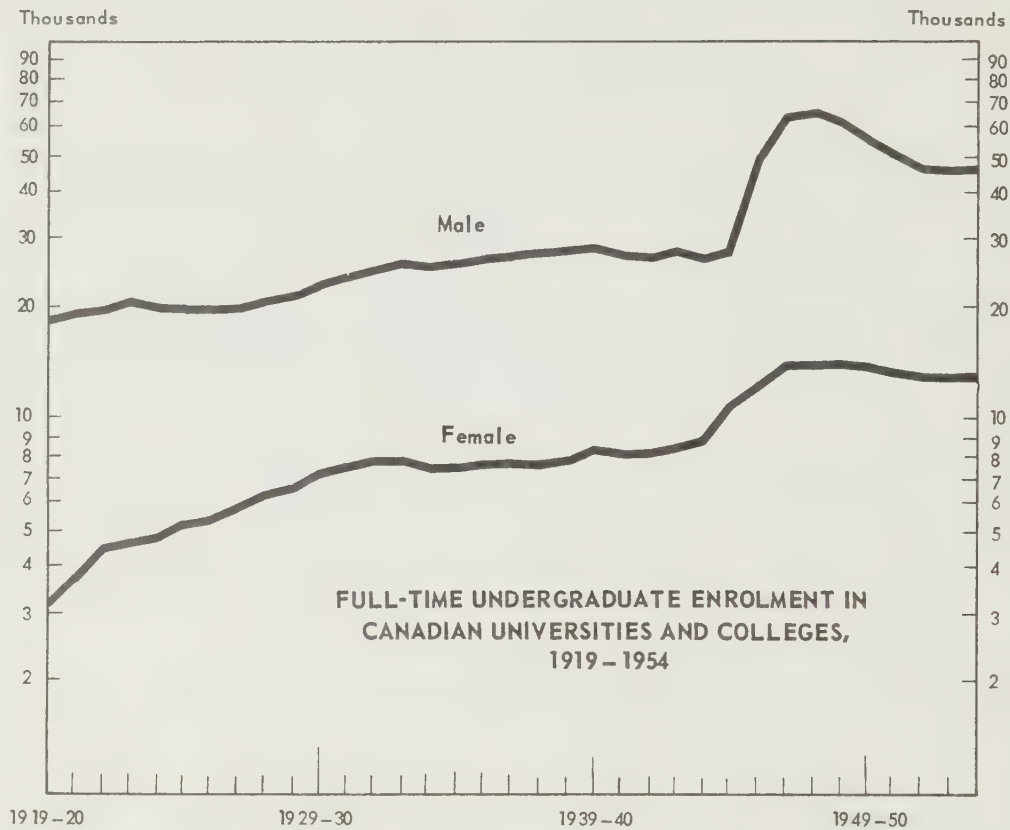
Women as a Percentage of the Total Employed  
in Selected Professions, 1931-1951

	1951	1941 (per cent)	1931
Actuaries.....	8.1	—	—
Architects .....	2.5	1.3	0.2
Authors, editors and journalists .....	22.5	17.2	13.9
Chemists and metallurgists .....	10.2	3.5	3.6
Dentists.....	1.5	1.2	0.8
Dental mechanics.....	8.3	—	—
Dietitians .....	100.0	—	—
Draughtsmen and designers .....	4.9	2.7	2.2
Engineers, electrical.....	0.2	0.0	0.0
Engineers, mechanical.....	0.1	0.0	—
Laboratory technicians .....	38.1	—	—
Lawyers and notaries .....	2.2	1.6	0.7
Librarians .....	86.7	85.5	79.9
Nurses, graduate.....	97.5	99.4	100.0
Nurses, in training.....	99.7	99.4	100.0
Physicians and surgeons .....	4.6	3.6	2.0
Professors and college principals.....	15.0	6.7	8.1
Statisticians .....	16.7	—	—
Surveyors.....	0.5	—	—
Teachers, school .....	72.1	74.6	78.0
Veterinarians .....	2.2	0.0	0.0

Source: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. IV, Table 4; Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901-1951, Tables 7 and 8, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*



..... SINCE 1919, THE NUMBER OF FEMALE UNDERGRADUATES AT CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES HAS QUADRUPLLED. MALE UNDERGRADUATES INCREASED 2½ TIMES



.....IN 1954 MOST WOMEN GRADUATES WERE IN ARTS AND LETTERS, EDUCATION OR NURSING.....

IN 1954  
OF EVERY 100 MALE GRADUATES

- 15 Majored in health & medicine
- 10 Majored in education
- 35 Majored in arts & letters
- 12 Majored in applied science or engineering
- 11 Majored in law or commerce
- 1 Majored in social work
- 9 Majored in natural science
- 7 Majored in other fields



IN 1954  
OF EVERY 100 FEMALE GRADUATES

- 15 Majored in health & medicine
- 19 Majored in education
- 47 Majored in arts & letters
- 0 Majored in applied science or engineering
- 2 Majored in law or commerce
- 4 Majored in social work
- 4 Majored in natural science
- 9 Majored in other fields



Source: Survey of Higher Education, D B S

## 7. University Training of Women

A larger proportion of young Canadian women is now going to university than ever before. In fact, since 1925, the percentage of the college-age population of both sexes enrolled as undergraduates in Canadian universities has nearly doubled.

The increase, for women as well as men, was particularly marked in the years immediately following the Second World War. Between 1939 and 1954, the number of female undergraduates in Canada increased by about three-quarters. The peak years were 1947 to 1950 when women who had been prevented from attending university because of the war or who were on veteran's grants swelled the ranks of those working towards a degree. Since the war, the tendency has been for more women to attend university before seeking full-time employment.

Percentage Distribution of Graduates by Field of Specialization, 1954

	Men	Women
	(per cent)	
<b>Health and Medicine</b> .....	<b>14.7</b>	<b>15.2</b>
Dentistry .....	1.6	0.2
Medicine.....	8.3	1.7
Physical Training and Health Education .....	0.6	1.3
Pharmacy .....	3.3	0.9
Nursing.....	—	11.1
Veterinary Science .....	0.9	—
<b>Education</b> .....	<b>9.7</b>	<b>19.3</b>
Education and Pedagogy .....	4.7	8.0
University Teachers' Training Course .....	4.8	8.9
Librarianship.....	0.2	2.4
<b>Arts and Letters</b> .....	<b>34.8</b>	<b>46.5</b>
<b>Applied Science or Engineering</b> .....	<b>12.5</b>	<b>—</b>
<b>Law and Commerce</b> .....	<b>11.4</b>	<b>2.1</b>
Law .....	5.9	0.9
Commerce .....	5.5	1.2
<b>Social Work</b> .....	<b>0.6</b>	<b>4.3</b>
<b>Natural Science</b> .....	<b>9.5</b>	<b>3.9</b>
Agricultural Science.....	2.3	0.4
B.A. (Science).....	6.3	3.5
Forestry Science.....	0.9	—
<b>Other</b> .....	<b>6.8</b>	<b>8.7</b>
Architecture.....	0.9	0.2
Household Science .....	—	7.3
Theology .....	5.9	1.2
<b>Total</b> .....	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: *Survey of Higher Education, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

Most women at universities, however, are still majoring in the fields that have long been favoured by women students. In 1954, of every hundred female graduates, 47 were in arts and letters. Another 42 per cent were in household science, social work, education, or nursing. In other words, almost 90 of every 100 women graduates were in courses leading to predominantly feminine fields of work or providing a general education in the humanities. At the same time, however, women were no longer unique in courses such as medicine, pharmacy, law, commerce and natural science.



The large proportion of both men and women graduating from arts and letters courses indicates the importance of such courses in providing a general educational background for both working and living.

**Full-Time Undergraduate Enrolment in Canadian Universities and Colleges, 1919-1954**

Year	Men	Women	Total
1919-20 .....	18,699	3,170	21,869
1924-25 .....	19,576	5,229	24,805
1929-30 .....	23,096	7,113	30,209
1934-35 .....	25,676	7,375	33,051
1939-40 .....	27,748	8,155	35,903
1944-45 .....	27,381	10,995	38,376
1945-46 .....	48,991	12,870	61,861
1946-47 .....	61,706	14,531	76,237
1947-48 .....	64,731	14,615	79,346
1948-49 .....	61,392	14,415	75,807
1949-50 .....	55,028	14,083	69,111
1950-51 .....	50,170	13,866	64,036
1951-52 .....	46,602	13,247	59,849
1952-53 .....	46,821	13,225	60,046
1953-54 .....	47,779	13,400	61,179

Source: *Survey of Higher Education, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

## 8. Women in Science and Engineering

According to the Technical Personnel Register of the Department of Labour, about 6 per cent of all persons in the natural science professions in Canada (biologists, chemists, geologists, mathematicians, physicists) are women. Of these, three-quarters are in biology and chemistry; the number of women in engineering professions is negligible. These and the following data are from Technical Personnel records accumulated during the years 1951-1956.

Women in science and engineering professions are a much younger group than their male colleagues. About 69 per cent of the women are 35 years of age or less, compared with only 35 per cent of the men. The median age of women in these fields is 31; that of men 39. The comparatively young age of most women in science and engineering is mainly due to the fact that these professions are relatively new fields for women, interest in them having developed to a marked degree only since the Second World War.

Research work, inspection and laboratory services and, to a lesser degree, teaching, occupy by far the greatest number of women scientists and engineers. These three functions together accounted for 87 per cent of the women in these professions; and in biology and chemistry, where women are most numerous, they account for 97 and 91 per cent respectively.

The average academic level for women in science and engineering is higher than for men. Of all scientists and engineers in the Register, 74 per cent hold bachelor degrees, 12 per cent master degrees and 6 per cent doctorates. Of the women covered, 66 per cent hold bachelor degrees, but 23 per cent hold master degrees and 11 per cent hold doctorates.

## Part III – Comparison with the United States and Great Britain

In spite of the increasing labour force participation of Canadian women, they still form a smaller percentage of the total labour force in Canada than in the United States or in Great Britain.

Composition of the Labour Force by Sex: Canada, United States, and Great Britain, June, 1956

	Total Labour Force <sup>1</sup> (thousands)	Men (thousands)	Women (thousands)	Women as Percentage of Total Labour Force (per cent)
Canada.....	5,764	4,423	1,341	23.3
United States .....	69,430	47,118	22,312	32.1
Great Britain <sup>2</sup> .....	23,989	16,136	7,853	32.7

<sup>1</sup>Not including armed forces, except in Great Britain. Includes persons aged 14 and over in Canada and U.S., 15 and over in Great Britain.

<sup>2</sup>Great Britain includes England, Scotland, and Wales, but not the rest of the United Kingdom.

Sources: *Canada and U.S.: Monthly survey of labour force. Great Britain: Contributors to National Insurance.*

The proportion of married women who are in the labour force is much smaller in Canada than it is in either the United States or Great Britain. The proportion of single women in the labour force, however, is higher in Canada than in the United States but lower than in Great Britain. Substantially more widowed and divorced women are in the working force in the United States than in either Canada or Great Britain.

Labour Force Participation Rates of Female Population, by Marital Status<sup>1</sup>

	Canada June 1951 (per cent of population in labour force)	United States Apr. 1951 (per cent of population in labour force)	Great Britain Apr. 1951 (per cent of population in labour force)
Single .....	53.6	49.6	72.9
Married .....	11.2	26.7	21.5
Widowed and divorced .....	19.3	36.1	20.9

<sup>1</sup>Population 14 and over in Canada and U.S.; 15 and over in G.B.

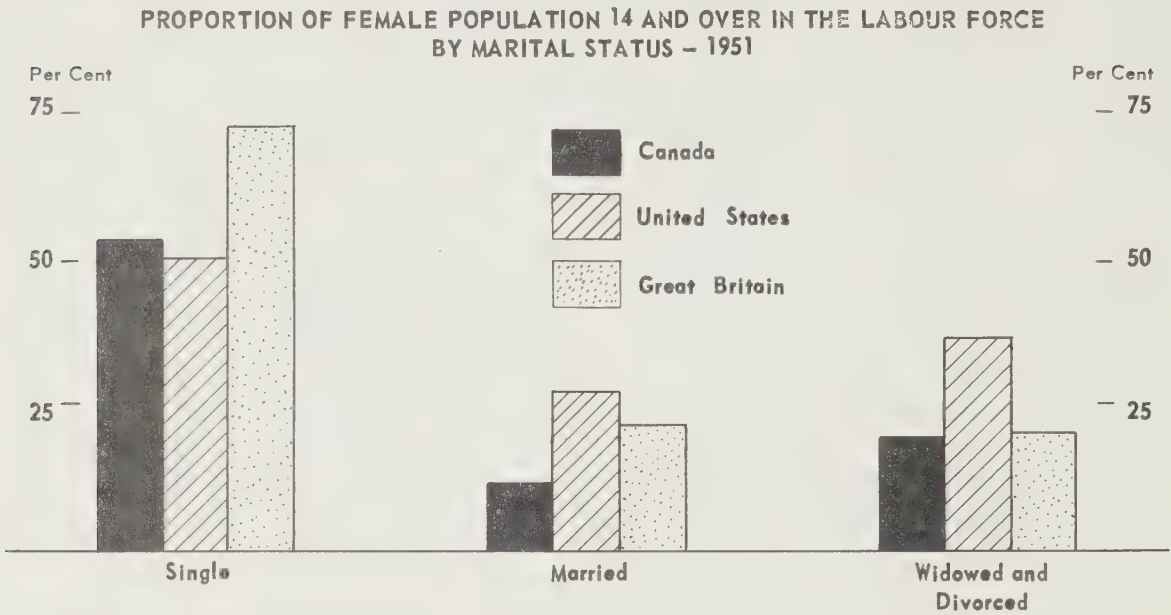
Sources: *Canada and Great Britain: 1951 Census. U.S.: Bureau of Census, Current Population Survey, April, 1951.*

The types of jobs in which women are employed are predominantly the same in all three countries. As appears in the table below, however, the percentage of the female labour force which is employed in the manufacturing industries is considerably greater in the United Kingdom than in Canada or in the United States. In Canada, the percentage of the female labour force which is in service industries (other than government



. . . . .IN CANADA ONE MARRIED WOMAN IN TEN IS WORKING. . . . .

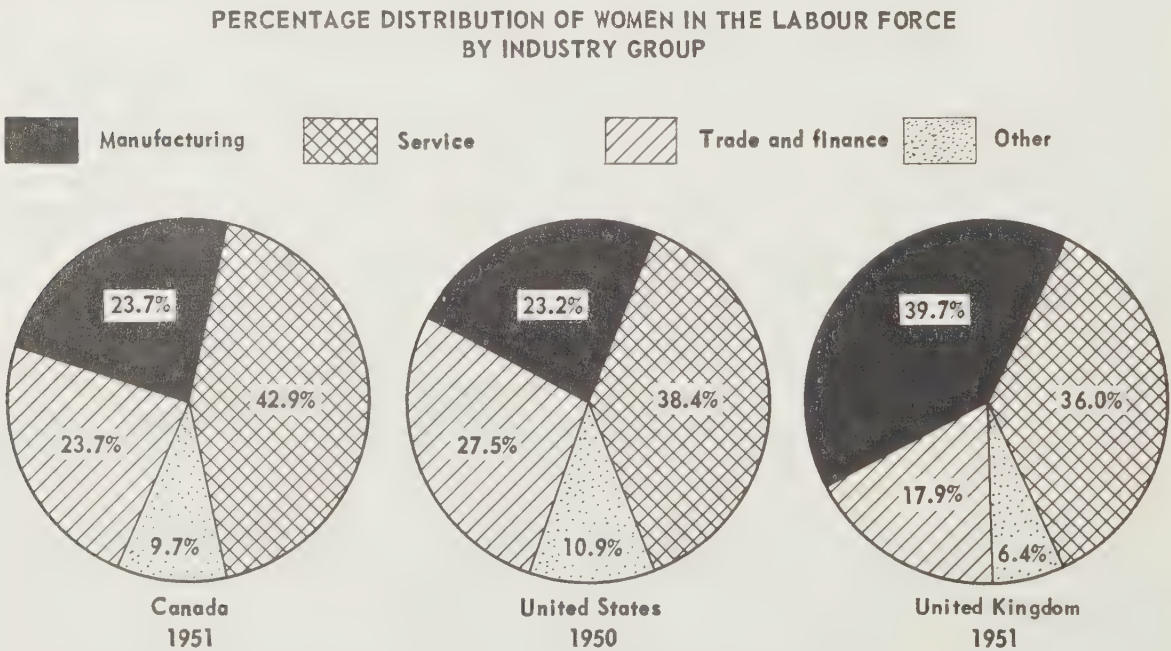
. . . . .IN THE UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN ONE MARRIED WOMAN IN FIVE IS WORKING. . . . .



Sources: Canada and Great Britain; 1951 Census, U.S.; Bureau of Census, Current Population Survey, April 1951.

. . . . . IN CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES, THE LARGEST PERCENTAGE OF WORKING WOMEN IS IN THE SERVICE INDUSTRIES . . . . .

. . . . .IN THE UNITED KINGDOM THE LARGEST PERCENTAGE IS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES . . . . .



Source: Census of Canada, 1951; United States, Census 1950; Great Britain, Contributors under National Insurance Act and National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act.

service) is greater than in the United States or the United Kingdom. This table shows a breakdown by groups of industries, not by groups of occupations, as in Part II.

Percentage Distribution of Working Women <sup>1</sup> by Industry Group,  
for Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom

Industry Group	Canada 1951	United States 1950 (per cent)	United Kingdom 1951
Manufacturing.....	23.6	23.2	39.7
Transportation, communication, and public utilities.....	4.6	4.3	3.9
Trade and finance .....	23.7	27.5	17.9
Government service.....	4.6	4.2	5.2
Other service .....	38.4	34.2	30.8
Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, mining, and construction .....	4.0	4.5	2.5
Not stated.....	1.1	2.1	—
Total .....	100.0	100.0	100.0

<sup>1</sup>Not including women in the Active Forces, except in Canada, where the number is small and is included under "Government service." Includes women 14 and over in Canada and U.S., 15 and over in U.K.

Sources: *Canada — Census of Canada, 1951; U.S. — Census of 1950; U.K. — Employed contributors under National Insurance Act and National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act.*



## Part IV — Women's Earnings

The earnings of women workers are greatly influenced by the role of women in society. Whereas most men spend virtually their full adult life working to support themselves and their families, the average woman who seeks employment does so on an intermittent basis or in conjunction with her family and household responsibilities.

In the first phase of adulthood, many young women undertake some gainful work; at present more than a third of the women between 14 and 25 years of age are in the labour force. When a woman marries, as the great majority do, she may resign from her job, either at once or when she has children. Later, as the children grow older and family responsibilities may lessen, more and more married women return to employment while continuing to look after their homes. Some women, particularly those who do not marry or who are married but have no children, are employed throughout their lives. On the whole, as was noted in an earlier chapter, there is a growing tendency for gainful work to occupy a larger part in the lives of women of all ages.

It is clear, however, that the pattern of gainful employment in a woman's life is not nearly as predictable as in the case of a man's, and the consequences of this fact affect the position of women in the labour market.

In the first place, the attitude of women towards training, insofar as it is related to employment, tends to be different from that of men. With some important exceptions, women are less likely than men to acquire the training necessary to fit them for highly skilled work, especially when several years of preparation are required. Decisions regarding the kind of education and training they take are likely to be influenced by their anticipated role of housewife and mother.

A lack of enthusiasm often shown by women for union organization or long-range employee benefit programs is undoubtedly related in many cases to their uncertain attachment to the labour force.

While both men and women leave jobs for many of the same reasons, women may also withdraw from the labour market because of marriage or other family responsibilities. Although this is not true of all women, it is the accepted pattern of a woman's life. If she wishes to remain at work outside her home, there are seldom adequate services available to enable her to do so. Therefore, when continuity of service is required, employers often prefer to employ men; for similar reasons women's opportunities of promotion are apt to be limited.

Again, many women, especially when married, tend to prefer jobs where the hours of work do not interfere too much with the performance of household duties, and where responsibilities are not too great. Since the responsibilities for home and family generally fall most heavily on the wife, married women are likely to perform a dual role, and their absentee rates are therefore higher. Many of them work only part-time or in seasonal jobs where, even if they are paid at the same rate as men, their

monthly or annual earnings tend to be less. Then, too, married women frequently work to supplement their husband's income rather than to provide an income sufficient to support a family. As a result, they are often willing to accept work at comparatively low rates, thus tending to bring down the standards of remuneration for all women. The woman who re-enters employment after a long absence is handicapped also, because her work in the home will probably not have added to her training and experience for an occupation outside.

Another factor in the economic status of the married woman worker is her limited mobility. Since it is usually the husband's opportunity of employment rather than the wife's that determines the choice of a place to live, the married woman may be unable to find the type of work best suited to her abilities and training and may take a less well-paid job than she might otherwise hold. Moreover, even if she has a good position, she is unlikely to be able to accept promotion that would involve moving to another part of the country, unless such a move would not interfere with her husband's career.

Finally, there are usually many women who are prepared to enter the labour force only if jobs that will fit in with their other responsibilities, and not necessarily high paying ones, become available. This flexibility in the supply of women workers and the relative ease with which one can be substituted for another in the many semi-skilled jobs they hold have important bearings on women's wages. An increasing demand for workers in occupations employing large numbers of women does not tend to push wages up to the same extent as in predominantly male occupations where normally there is a closer balance between the supply and demand of workers.

One general effect of these differences between men and women workers is that women as a whole tend to be found in lower paid occupations and jobs in the labour force despite the fact that there are cases, an increasing number of them, where well trained women do hold high-paying and responsible positions. Closely related to this is the existence of a differential between men's and women's wages resulting in part from the fact that the number of available women workers in relation to job openings is usually higher than in the case of men.

It should be realized, of course, that the importance of these factors varies with changes in economic developments, in working arrangements and facilities and in education. In Canada, over the past fifty years, many important changes have taken place in attitudes towards women's work and, also, in the amount of time and effort required to perform household tasks. As indicated earlier, a good many of these changes have made it easier for women to take jobs on the same basis as men. Nevertheless, the differences between the roles of men and women in society continue to influence their relative positions in the labour market and thus their earnings.



# 1. Earnings of Women in Non-Professional White Collar Occupations

Non-professional white collar occupations in the clerical, communications and commercial fields employ a higher proportion of women than any other types of work. Information on the earnings of workers in these occupations is obtained from the Census of 1951. Salary rates are drawn from the 1955 edition of *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, issued by the Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour. Although these latter apply to "white collar" employees in the manufacturing industry only, they are indicative of pay levels for all workers in the occupations listed.

It is important to note the distinction between earnings and wage and salary rates. The former term denotes total wages or salary received and therefore may be increased by over-time payments, made at the same or higher rates than those for regular time, or may be reduced when the remuneration is for only part-time work. Wage and salary rates, on the other hand, are not affected by either over-time or part-time work.

## Clerical Occupations

Clerical workers include office clerks, stenographers and typists, bookkeepers and cashiers, office appliance operators, doctors' and dentists' attendants, and other office workers. In 1951 more than one-quarter of all women workers were in clerical occupations; these women comprised just over 58 per cent of all persons in the occupation.

The following table shows the per-cent distribution of women salary earners in clerical occupations by amount of annual earnings in 1951. Since that time there have been substantial increases in salaries which invalidate these figures as an indication of current earnings, but the table serves to show differences in the levels of earnings among various clerical occupations. These differences remain more nearly constant than do actual salaries. It will be noted that stenographers and typists were the smallest group at the lowest level of earnings—14.8 per cent compared with 23.5 per cent of office clerks and 20.8 per cent of bookkeepers and cashiers—and at the same time they were, by a slight margin, the largest group at the highest level—1.2 per cent, compared with 0.5 per cent of office clerks and 0.7 per cent of bookkeepers and cashiers. Of those engaged in these three occupations, stenographers and typists on the whole, have the highest earnings and office clerks the lowest.

Per Cent Distribution of Women Salary Earners in Clerical Occupations by Amount of Annual Earnings 1951

Amount of Earnings	All Clerical Occupations	Office Clerks	Stenographers and Typists	Bookkeepers and Cashiers
\$			(per cent)	
Less than 1,000.....	19.1	23.5	14.8	20.8
1,000 — 1,499.....	28.2	30.9	25.1	29.5
1,500 — 1,999.....	32.8	29.5	36.0	31.6
2,000 — 2,999.....	19.0	15.5	22.9	17.4
3,000 or more .....	0.9	0.5	1.2	0.7

Source: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. V., Table 21.*

## Office Clerks

In 1951, ten per cent of the women in the labour force were employed as office clerks, and almost 43 per cent of all office clerks were women.

The following table shows the predominant range of salary rates per week for both men and women general office clerks in manufacturing establishments in October 1955.

**Predominant Range of Salary Rates per Week  
General Office Clerks in Manufacturing 1955**

(Based on data from 39 Selected Cities)

Occupation and Sex	Employees, by Sex (All Regions)		Predominant Range of Salary Rates per Week <sup>1</sup>				
			Atlantic Provinces	Quebec	Ontario	Prairie Provinces	British Columbia
	No.	%	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
<b>General office clerk</b>							
Senior — Men .....	3,906	77.9	47—89	50—109	54—103	42—98	51—102
Women .....	1,107	22.1	40—46	40— 74	35— 81	38—60	42— 64
Intermediate — Men .....	3,870	55.2	35—69	34— 81	36— 81	39—78	40— 81
Women ..	3,141	44.8	32—48	23— 61	33— 68	34—63	35— 50
Junior — Men .....	2,798	53.8	23—47	24— 55	30— 63	30—52	35— 56
Women .....	2,399	46.2	23—37	19— 46	27— 58	27—50	30— 44

<sup>1</sup>The predominant range includes only the middle 80 per cent of workers within an occupation. Ten per cent of the workers receive more than the highest figure shown in the range and ten per cent less than the lowest figure.

Source: *Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour.*

Salary rates for women office clerks are generally lower than those for men in the same field of work. This situation reflects to some extent differences in duties performed. For instance, fewer women than men are employed in administrative, supervisory and other senior positions; almost 80 per cent of the senior general office clerks and well over one-half of the intermediate group included in the survey were men. At the junior level, where the work is largely routine or repetitive in nature, there was a higher proportion of women, and less difference existed between the rates of men and women than at the higher levels. The ranges of rates for both men and women are widest in Quebec and Ontario, indicating, among other things, that these provinces offer a greater variety of jobs for office clerks than are available elsewhere.

## Stenographers and Typists

Nearly all stenographers and typists are women, and 11.4 per cent of the female labour force in 1951 were either stenographers or typists, including private secretaries. The predominant range of salary rates per week for private secretaries, stenographers and typists in the manufacturing industry in October 1955 is shown in the table below.

Salary rates for junior typists tended to be highest in the Ontario region, while those for senior typists showed a wider range in Ontario and Quebec than elsewhere. Rates for junior stenographers varied con-



siderably by region, with the highest in Ontario and Quebec. Senior stenographers and typists had similar rates in all regions, although the top of the range for stenographers was slightly higher in all regions except Ontario.

In general, stenographers have opportunity to rise to higher rates than typists, but a greater number are employed in the latter occupation. The highest salaries in the field are paid to private secretaries, because of the greater responsibilities of their jobs. In all parts of Canada salary rates for private secretaries are slightly higher than those for women who are senior general office clerks.

**Predominant Range of Salary Rates per Week  
Stenographers and Typists in Manufacturing 1955<sup>1</sup>**  
(Based on data from 39 Selected Cities)

Occupation	Atlantic Provinces	Quebec	Ontario	Prairie Provinces	British Columbia
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
Private secretary .....	42-60	35-81	40-78	42-69	43-77
Stenographer, senior .....	32-61	33-63	35-63	38-59	39-57
Stenographer, junior .....	29-40	24-53	28-55	31-50	29-46
Typist, senior.....	39-55	32-53	33-63	35-52	37-50
Typist, junior.....	27-34	23-46	26-57	28-43	32-45

<sup>1</sup>See footnote page 35.

Source: *Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour.*

### Bookkeepers and Cashiers

About 5 per cent of women workers in 1951 were bookkeepers and cashiers, a Census classification that includes a wide variety of individual occupations, from accounting clerks and general bookkeepers to tube operators and carrier girls in the retail trade. Women comprised just under 62 per cent of the entire group.

**Predominant Range of Salary Rates per Week  
Bookkeepers in Manufacturing 1955**  
(Based on data in 39 Selected Cities)

Occupation and Sex	Employees, by Sex (All Regions)		Predominant Range of Salary Rates per Week <sup>1</sup>				
			Atlantic Provinces	Quebec	Ontario	Prairie Provinces	British Columbia
	No.	%	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
<b>Bookkeeper</b>							
Senior — Men.....	899	46.3	45-82	48-90	46-94	50-90	58-96
Women.....	1,042	53.7	40-59	40-75	40-83	40-77	42-72
Junior — Men.....	536	42.9	.....	28-70	35-80	35-70	46-75
Women.....	714	57.1	33-46	30-54	30-61	31-52	35-58

<sup>1</sup>See footnote page 35.

Source: *Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour.*

As in other fields of work, bookkeepers' salaries increase with added training, experience and responsibility. The table above shows that in manufacturing establishments, women's salaries as junior bookkeepers in October 1955 ranged from \$30.00 to \$61.00 per week, while those of senior bookkeepers varied from \$40.00 to \$83.00. These were slightly higher than the salaries of women working as senior general office clerks (see table on page 35).

**Communications Occupations**

**Telephone Switchboard Operators**

From the communications field, the occupation of telephone switchboard operator was selected because it employs nearly 90 per cent of women workers in transportation and communication.

The following table shows the range of salary rates for telephone switchboard operators in manufacturing in October 1955, not including supervisory and teaching personnel. Those in the lowest salary ranges included apprentice telephone operators. It will be noted that salary rates for telephone switchboard operators are about the same as those of junior typists (see table on page 36).

**Predominant Range of Salary Rates per Week  
Telephone Switchboard Operators in Manufacturing 1955**

Region	Predominant Range of Salary Rates per Week <sup>1</sup>
	\$
Atlantic Provinces .....	24-44
Quebec .....	25-55
Ontario .....	28-57
Prairie Provinces .....	31-50
British Columbia .....	35-51

<sup>1</sup>See footnote, page 35.

Source: *Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour.*

**Commercial Occupations**

**Sales Clerks**

In 1951, about four-fifths of all women in commercial occupations were sales clerks; they represented more than half of the sales force. The earnings of well over 50 per cent of these women were in the lowest level for the group. This is in part accounted for by the fact that large numbers are counter clerks, of whom many are both young and inexperienced. In addition, a considerable number work only part-time during the year.

The salary of a sales clerk is usually reckoned in one of three ways: on a straight time basis, on a commission basis or on the basis of a combination of these. The following table shows the ranges of salary rates for both men and women sales clerks on both a time and a commission basis in October 1955.



**Predominant Range of Salary Rates per Week<sup>1</sup>**  
**Sales Clerks – Retail Trade 1955**

(Based on data from 18 Selected Cities)

Occupation and Sex	Atlantic Provinces	Quebec	Ontario	Prairie Provinces	British Columbia
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
Sales clerks					
On time work – Men .....	23–59	31– 63	35– 77	35– 75	45– 74
Women ....	17–39	20– 40	23– 45	27– 46	28– 56
On commission – Men.....	35–67	40–110	27–120	48–161	50–116
Women ..	20–43	32– 53	27– 53	30– 49	35– 50

<sup>1</sup>See footnote, page 35.

Source: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, 1955, Table 81.*  
*Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour.*

Differences in pay between men and women are more marked among sales clerks working on a commission basis than among those who are on a time basis only. Those employed on a time basis are for the most part counter clerks. More experienced sales people predominate among the ones who, in addition to a basic salary, receive a commission on sales. The probability of higher earnings on a commission basis is greater when the item to be sold is an expensive one, and valuable commodities are more frequently sold by men than by women. For example, nearly all automobile salesmen are men, and men usually sell major household appliances and furniture.

## 2. Earnings of Women in Personal Service Occupations

Personal service occupations include most of the traditional jobs held by women, such as those involving domestic work, laundry work, cleaning and hairdressing, many of which lend themselves to part-time employment. In the Census of 1951 about one-fifth of the female labour force was listed under this classification, and two-thirds of all persons in the field were women.

Earnings reported for this group of occupations in the Census of 1951 are, like others, well below the current figures, but the following table of per-cent distribution of women wage earners by amount of annual earnings shows the high proportion of all personal service workers who were at very low levels of earnings. Hairdressers and manicurists, who are required to have some specialized training, tended to earn more than women in other personal services. Also, a relatively high proportion of laundresses, cleaners and dyers, and cooks were at a slightly better level of earnings. For these occupations, unlike many other personal service jobs, training and experience are frequently required.

Percentage Distribution of Women Wage-Earners in Personal Service Occupations  
by Amount of Annual Earnings 1951

Occupation	Earnings					
	Less than \$500	\$500 – \$999	\$1,000–\$1,499	\$1,500 – \$1,999	\$2,000 – \$2,999	\$3,000 – or more
			(per cent)			
Hairdressers and manicurists .....	20.1	20.4	32.6	19.2	7.1	0.6
Cooks .....	36.4	28.8	22.8	8.9	2.9	0.2
Housekeepers and matrons .....	55.1	30.3	9.1	3.5	1.8	0.2
Laundresses, cleaners and dyers.....	24.2	29.3	34.7	10.2	1.6	—
Waitresses .....	34.4	36.4	23.1	5.1	1.0	—
Charworkers and cleaners .....	35.1	44.1	16.5	3.8	0.5	—
Hotel, cafe and private household workers .....	54.2	32.7	10.6	2.1	0.4	—
All personal service occupations ....	43.0	32.2	18.0	5.4	1.3	0.1

Source: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. V, Table 21.*

Hotel, Cafe and Private Household Workers

Women make up nearly 90 per cent of all workers in hotels, cafes and households. Pay rates for private household workers vary widely and are based on local practice. Hotel employees are included in the annual survey of wage rates conducted by the Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour. The following table gives the predominant range of monthly wage rates in October 1955 for housekeepers, chambermaids, dishwashers and elevator operators in the hotels covered by the survey. These are indicative of the wages of all hotel workers in these occupations.

Predominant Range of Wage Rates per Month  
Selected Hotel Occupations<sup>1</sup> 1955

Occupation and Sex	Atlantic Provinces \$	Quebec \$	Ontario \$	Prairie Provinces \$	British Provinces \$
Housekeeper .....	95–173	141–190	107–250	140–200	139–195
Chambermaid.....	73–100	82–114	88–174	115–160	117–169
Dishwasher—Male .....	73–128	102–138	113–176	130–158	127–208
—Female.....	80–105	99–120	83–153	115–141	122–138
Elevator Operator					
—Male .....	85–95	96–135	109–190	121–191	159–189
—Female.....	—	—	93–175	120–160	108–160

<sup>1</sup>Other than railway hotels and hotels employing fewer than 200 non-office employees. The predominant range includes only the middle 80 per cent of workers within an occupation. Ten per cent of the workers receive more than the highest figure shown in the range and ten per cent less than the lowest figure.

Source: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada 1955, Table 85. Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour.*



### 3. Earnings of Women Plant Workers in Manufacturing

#### Textiles

The textile industry was the largest employer of women in manufacturing operations in 1951. More than half of all women working in manufacturing were in some kind of work with textiles. In 1954 plants employing 15 or more persons in the two branches of this industry, clothing (textile and fur) and textiles (except clothing), had about 75,000 women workers, slightly more than three-quarters of them in clothing. The average hourly earnings of women in the two branches of this industry in 1954 were respectively, 84.7 cents and 92.3 cents, with weekly averages of \$31.74 and \$37.46.

Wage rates and straight-time earnings in typical jobs in the industry as of October 1955 are given in the following table:

Occupation	Average Wage rate per hour \$	Average Straight-time Earnings per Hour (piece or incentive work) \$
<b>Spinners (female)</b>		
Cotton yarn and broad woven goods ...	0.86	1.10
Woollen and worsted woven goods and yarn (frame) .....	0.89	0.99
Rayon, nylon and silk textiles.....	0.84	1.07
<b>Sewing machine operators (female)</b>		
Men's and boy's suits and overcoats ...	0.84	1.05
Shirts .....	0.67	0.82
Work clothing .....	0.70	0.91
Women's and misses' coats and suits...	1.27	1.44
Women's and misses' dresses .....	0.91	1.16
Hosiery and knit goods (underwear and outerwear).....	0.74	0.86
Corsets, girdles and foundation garments .....	0.65	0.95
Fur goods .....	1.23	—

Source: *Wages and Hours of Labour in Canada, 1955, Tables 24-34. Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour.*

#### Food and Beverages

This manufacturing classification comes second in the number of women employed. Like clothing and textiles, it is on the whole not a well-paid industry. The average hourly earnings of women working in food and beverages, mainly in food production, in 1954 was 85.5 cents. The weekly average was \$32.40.

As a classification of manufacturing, food and beverages covers such a wide range of undertakings that it is difficult to select typical jobs. The following data, however, suggest some of the variations in rates of pay within the industry as reported for October 1955.

Type of Manufacture	Occupation	Average Wage rate per hour \$	Average Straight-time Earnings per hour (piece or incentive work) \$
Slaughtering and meat packing	Linker and twister (female)	1.17	1.46
Canned and cured fish	Filleter (female)	0.86	—
Canned and preserved fruits and vegetables	Cutter, peeler, pitter, hand (female)	0.71	0.88
Biscuits and crackers	General helper (female)	0.94	—
Bread and other bakery products	Cake icer (female)	0.81	—
Confectionery	Chocolate dipper, hand (female)	0.78	0.80

Source: *Ibid.* Tables 7, 9, 10, 12, 13 and 16.

### Metal Products

The next largest group of women factory workers were employed in industries classified under the term “metal products”: electrical apparatus and supplies; iron and steel products; transportation equipment; and non-ferrous metal products, mainly brass and copper products and aluminum products.

Well over half of the women in metal products were in “electrical apparatus and supplies”, and their average earnings in 1954 were 118.4 cents per hour and \$46.75 per week.

As of October 1955 the wage rates and straight-time earnings of women engaged as assemblers in two branches of the industry were as follows.

Occupation	Average Wage rate per hour \$	Average Straight-time Earnings per hour (piece or incentive work) \$
Assemblers (female)		
Radio, television and other electronic equipment.....	1.06	1.34
Refrigerators, vacuum cleaners and miscellaneous electrical products.....	1.08	1.30

Source: *Ibid.* Tables 64 and 65.

In iron and steel products, the 1954 over-all average earnings of women were 116.5 cents per hour and \$45.33 per week. Two-thirds of the women were engaged in three types of manufacture: sheet metal products where average weekly earnings were \$47.96, machinery with a weekly average of \$46.79, and hardware and tools with \$40.92.

The transportation equipment workers were the highest paid women in manufacturing; their average hourly earnings were 131.5 cents, with a weekly average of \$50.46. Three-quarters of the women reported were



engaged in the making of either motor vehicle parts and accessories, where average weekly earnings were \$49.08, or aircraft and parts, with a weekly average of \$57.63.

The lowest wages in the broad classification of metal products industry in 1954 were earned in the making of non-ferrous metal products—an average of 93.5 cents per hour and \$37.43 a week.

### Leather Products

In the leather products industry, where women are engaged chiefly in the making of boots and shoes, their average earnings in 1954 were 78.9 cents per hour and \$28.78 per week.

Wage rates and straight-time earnings for typical jobs of women in the industry in October 1955 were as follows.

Occupation	Average Wage rate per hour \$	Average Straight-time Earnings per hour (piece or incentive work) \$
Lining maker .....	0.68	0.84
Repairer .....	0.77	1.01
Binding stitcher .....	0.79	1.01
Top stitcher .....	0.82	0.96
Fancy stitcher .....	0.83	0.95
Vamp stitcher .....	0.84	1.00

Source: *Ibid.* Table 22.

In all these industries the average number of hours worked by men was greater than that for women. More women than men may have worked on a part-time basis; in other words, the average hours of full-time workers may not have shown much difference between men and women.

The following table shows the number of women employed in each of the industries, the average hourly and weekly earnings and average number of hours worked, for both men and women.

Average Hourly Earnings in Selected Manufacturing Industries Employing in Total over 75 per cent of Women Wage-Earners 1954

Industry	No. of Women Wage- Earners	Average Hourly Earnings			Average Weekly Earnings			Average Hours Worked per Week	
		M	\$	F	M	\$	F	M	F
Clothing (textile and fur) .....	56,922	132.8		84.7	53.79	31.74		40.5	37.5
Textile products (except clothing) .....	17,784	119.5		92.3	52.93	37.46		44.3	40.6
Food and beverages .....	31,497	132.1		85.5	57.20	32.40		43.3	37.9
Metal products .....	27,482								
Electrical apparatus and supplies .....	15,090	161.1		118.4	66.81	46.75		41.5	39.5
Iron and steel products ..	5,873	160.2		116.5	66.82	45.33		41.7	38.9
Transportation equipment .....	3,701	165.2		131.5	68.37	50.46		41.4	38.4
Non-ferrous metal products .....	2,818	164.3		93.5	68.75	37.43		41.9	40.0
Leather products .....	9,527	114.8		78.9	44.48	28.78		38.7	36.5

Source: *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing, 1954, Table 1. Labour & Prices Division, 1956, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (Based on establishments employing 15 persons or more—about 90 per cent of employees in manufacturing.)*

## 4. Earnings of Women in Professional Occupations

Three-quarters of all professionally employed women in Canada are either teachers or nurses. In the material that follows, figures on the earnings of women in these two important professions as well as of those in social welfare work are presented. Available data on earnings of women in the broad range of professions in which smaller—indeed often very small—numbers of women are engaged are not sufficiently definite to provide reliable information.

### Teaching

Close to one half of all professional women in Canada are teachers, and women comprise more than 70 per cent of the profession. The following analysis of salaries is based on the most recent available figures, which were collected by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics for the academic year, 1953–54. Unfortunately comparable data are not available for the Province of Quebec, and in some cases those for Ontario are lacking also.

The median annual salary of women classroom teachers and principals in all publicly controlled schools in Canada (except Quebec) was \$2,416. The median is the middle value of a series of values arranged in order of magnitude; the salaries of one half of all teachers are below the median salary, and those of the other half are above the median. In these schools the median annual salary for men teachers and principals was \$3,460. These salaries include those of teachers in rural schools where qualifications and salaries tend to be low and where women teachers greatly outnumber men. Also included are salaries for principals and administrators who, because of their greater responsibilities, normally receive higher salaries than classroom teachers. Comparatively few women are found in these higher positions.

Median Annual Salaries of Women Teachers and Principals in All  
Publicly-Controlled Schools in Canada (except Quebec)<sup>1</sup>  
1953 – 1954

Type of School	Median Annual Salary \$	Percentage of Women Teachers
All schools .....	2,416	70.6
Cities.....	2,993	66.4
Towns and villages .....	2,482	67.5
Rural (2 -5 rooms) .....	2,077	75.5
Rural (one room).....	2,048	81.0
Rural permit teachers <sup>2</sup> .....	943	82.6

<sup>1</sup>Data for Quebec not available.

<sup>2</sup>All persons given permission to teach; they have no professional training.

Source: *Teachers' Salaries and Qualifications, 1953–1954, Tables 9 to 14.*  
*Education Division, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

The following table shows that in the city elementary schools of eight of the ten provinces, Quebec and Ontario excepted, 23.3 per cent of administrative principals and 45.8 per cent of teaching principals were



women. In the secondary schools of the same areas of the country, 8.6 per cent of administrative principals and 18.2 per cent of teaching principals were women. Median annual salaries for all teaching positions in secondary schools, where the minimum qualification is the Graduate Certificate, are higher than those in elementary schools, in which many teachers have lesser qualifications.

<b>Median Annual Salaries of Women Teachers and Teaching Position</b> (experience of 15 years and over) City Schools of all provinces except Ontario and Quebec 1953 – 1954		
Teaching Position	Median Annual Salary \$	Women as Percentage of Total
Elementary		
Administrative principals <sup>1</sup> .....	3,775	23.3
Teaching principals <sup>2</sup> .....	3,416	45.8
Regular teachers <sup>3</sup> .....	3,228	94.8
Secondary		
Administrative principals <sup>1</sup> .....	4,375	8.6
Teaching principals <sup>2</sup> .....	3,650	18.2
Regular teachers <sup>3</sup> .....	3,613	64.7

<sup>1</sup>Principals of schools who spend more than half their time in administration.

<sup>2</sup>Principals of schools who spend half or more of their time teaching.

<sup>3</sup>Regular classroom teachers with elementary or secondary school teachers' certificates.

Source: *Teachers' Salaries and Qualifications, 1953–1954, Tables 19 and 20.*

*Education Division, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

In the teaching profession, it is common to provide regular increases in salaries for experience and to pay a supplement for higher qualifications. The table below shows median annual salaries for women teachers and principals for each of four certificates at specific levels of experience. The figures are based on returns from eight provinces; Ontario and Quebec are excepted.

<b>Median Annual Salaries of Women Teachers and Principals For Each of Four Certificates, At Four Specific Levels of Experience</b> All provinces except Ontario and Quebec 1953 – 1954				
Certificate	Levels of Experience			
	None \$	5 years \$	10 years \$	20 years \$
Advanced <sup>1</sup> .....	2,956	3,338	3,869	4,108
Graduate <sup>2</sup> .....	2,217	2,995	3,390	3,502
Class I <sup>3</sup> .....	1,916	2,236	2,683	2,818
Class II <sup>4</sup> .....	1,793	1,744	1,788	2,022

<sup>1</sup>Training of at least one year beyond the university degree, and the professional training required of teachers in academic secondary schools.

<sup>2</sup>A university degree with the professional training required of teachers in academic secondary schools. Commercial specialists are also included here.

<sup>3</sup>Academic background of the level of senior matriculation, and one year of professional training.

<sup>4</sup>Academic training of the level of junior matriculation (high school graduation) plus one year of professional training.

Source: *Teachers' Salaries and Qualifications, 1953–1954, Table 21.*

*Education Division, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

For teachers holding the three higher certificates of qualification, salaries increase with experience. At the lowest level of qualification, the Class II certificate, there is little variation in salary even with added experience. In practice, most teachers who remain in the profession for any length of time work towards an improvement of their qualifications.

### Nursing

While graduate nurses form only about 3 per cent of the female labour force, they total more than 20 per cent of all professional women, and nearly all graduate nurses are women. The following information regarding salaries of graduate nurses, which was obtained from The Canadian Nurses' Association, is unlike that given for other occupations in that it has been compiled from the recommendations for personnel policy of the provincial nursing associations. The figures are the recommended minimum gross salary rates for graduate nurses on hospital nursing staffs as of 1956. Because they are recommended rather than actual rates and are also more current than the other figures used in this pamphlet, comparisons with salaries in other occupations should not be made.

For general staff nurses (Registered Nurses) in hospitals, these recommended salaries range from \$175 per month in New Brunswick to \$250 in British Columbia. Minimum monthly gross salaries should be somewhat higher for head nurses and for instructors and supervisors, who have greater responsibilities. The employment contract usually provides for periodic increases for each position. The most common practice provides four annual increases of \$10 a month, but there are local and provincial variations from this rule. In addition it is recommended that the minimum salary be raised from \$10 to \$25 a month for nurses who have special post-graduate preparation, such as training in public health or in operating techniques, which increase the value of their services.

Minimum Recommended Gross Monthly Salaries  
Hospital Nursing Staffs 1956

Province <sup>1</sup>	General Staff Nurse (R.N.)	Head Nurse	Instructor or Supervisor
	\$	\$	\$
Nova Scotia.....	190	200	220
New Brunswick .....	175	195	215
Quebec .....	220	245	250
Ontario .....	235	260	275
Manitoba.....	210	235	250
Saskatchewan .....	225	250	265
Alberta .....	230	265	285
British Columbia.....	250	265	290

<sup>1</sup>Data for Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island are not available.

Source: *Recommendations regarding personnel policy, Provincial Nursing Associations, 1956.*

Broad experience and advanced preparation at the university level are required for the more responsible positions in nursing administration and education, and the recommended salaries are correspondingly higher.



The Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario has recommended a gross annual salary of not less than \$5,000 for directors of nursing in hospitals, public health agencies, large industrial services and schools of nursing. A director of nursing who is also responsible for the administration of a hospital or of a public health agency should, it is recommended, receive a minimum of \$5,620 a year. The Association of Nurses of the Province of Quebec has recommended a salary range of from \$6,300 to \$8,000 for directors of nursing in hospitals. At the same time, it is recommended that directors of nursing in public health units employing 25 or more nurses should receive \$6,000 to \$7,080, while the rate indicated for provincial directors and for those in large metropolitan areas is from \$7,500 to \$9,000.

### **Social Welfare Work**

In a 1951 survey of about 90 per cent of public and private social agencies in Canada, 50.6 per cent of 3,986 filled social welfare positions were held by women. The survey, carried out by the Department of National Health and Welfare, also gives some information on salaries in social welfare work.

In general, salary levels vary with age, experience, training, the size and complexity of the employing organization, geographic location and sex. The salaries given below are for 1951 and, because of upward adjustments since that time, cannot be taken to indicate current salaries. Nevertheless, salary differentials between various fields of work change more slowly than actual salaries and, therefore, will retain some validity.

Four fields of work had a median salary lower than \$2,833, which was the median for the profession as a whole (see table on page 47). The median as explained above, is the middle value in a series of values arranged in order of magnitude; the salaries of one half of all social welfare workers were below the median salary, and those of the other half were above the median. In three of these fields, family welfare, child welfare and social work in hospitals and clinics, there was a high proportion of personnel under 30 years of age, with less than five years' experience. Most of these younger social workers were women.

In six fields of work, the median salary was higher than that for the profession as a whole. Men outnumbered women in all of these fields except social work teaching. In fields where the median salary was above the over-all median, the workers were generally older and more experienced than welfare personnel as a whole.

The median salary for community chests and councils, where less than 2 per cent of all social welfare workers were employed, was comparatively high because of the large proportion of administrative and supervisory positions in this type of work; women formed 45.4 per cent of the group. The highest median salary was in social work teaching in which personnel as a whole had more formal training and longer experience; nearly two-thirds of the total in this field were women.

**Median Annual Salaries and Various Characteristics of Welfare Staff,  
by Field of Work (Reporting Agencies Only) 1951**

Field of Work	Median Annual Salary	Percentage of Personnel in Each Field Who Are			
		Female	In Admini- strative or Supervisory Positions	Under 30 years of age	Graduates of Schools of Social Work
	\$			(per cent)	
Family welfare .....	2394	88.2	39.1	28.9	43.5
Social work with physically handicapped .....	2515	49.2	29.7	19.5	10.8
Child welfare .....	2559	73.8	27.7	36.5	46.4
Social work in hospitals and clinics .....	2754	84.9	24.8	37.0	62.3
Group work and recreation.....	2883	37.1	47.8	32.1	11.6
Financial aid .....	2862	26.7	34.4	24.6	16.8
Social work with adult offenders.....	2980	14.8	33.3	19.8	38.3
Multiple service .....	3208	28.8	21.6	17.5	19.8
Community chests and councils .....	3700	45.4	89.6	10.4	44.2
Social work teaching.....	3868	64.9	13.5	8.1	83.8
All fields .....	2833	50.6	32.6	26.9	30.3

Source: *Survey of Welfare Positions, 1951, Tables 24, 30, 45 and 50. Research Division, Department of National Health and Welfare.*

**Annual Salaries of Social Welfare Workers by Sex<sup>1</sup>  
(Reporting Agencies Only) 1951**

Annual Salary <sup>2</sup>	Total Filled Positions			Women as Percentage of Total Employed
	Total	Men	Women	
Filled positions — Total	3,986	1,952	2,015	50.6
Salary not requested <sup>3</sup>	120	67	52	43.3
Salary not given	125	61	62	49.6
Salary reported — Total	3,741	1,824	1,901	50.8
Under \$1,500	77	22	55	71.4
\$1,500 — \$1,999	318	50	264	83.0
\$2,000 — \$2,499	798	262	533	66.8
\$2,500 — \$2,999	1,016	404	603	59.4
\$3,000 — \$3,499	650	406	244	37.5
\$3,500 — \$3,999	374	257	117	31.3
\$4,000 — \$4,499	238	195	43	18.1
\$4,500 — \$4,999	120	95	25	20.8
\$5,000 — and over	150	133	17	11.3
\$5,000 — \$5,999	83	71	12	14.5
\$6,000 — \$6,999	37	33	4	10.8
\$7,000 — and over	30	29	1	3.3

<sup>1</sup>Figures for men and women will not always agree with the subtotals shown for each salary grouping since the subtotals include 19 positions for which sex was not reported.

<sup>2</sup>Including the estimated value of board and lodging where applicable.

<sup>3</sup>Members of religious orders or communities were requested not to make salary returns.

Source: *Survey of Welfare Positions, 1951, Table 48. Research Division, Department of National Health and Welfare.*



The preceding table shows annual salaries of women in social welfare work as of 1951. Actual salary levels have increased since that time, and 1951 salaries are not indicative of current salary levels. Although most women in the profession earned from \$2,500 to \$2,999 in 1951, about 24 per cent had higher salaries. Nearly 60 per cent of the men earned \$3,000 or more. Many of the higher salaries were paid to persons in administrative and supervisory positions. Over 70 per cent of those in these positions had five years or more welfare experience. Women held about 40 per cent of the administrative positions and about 60 per cent of the supervisory positions.

#### Sources of Earnings Data

The principal source of information on the earnings of Canadian workers is the Census of Canada, the latest of which to include data on earnings is the Census of 1951. As has already been emphasized, in assessing these data, it is important to note that since 1951 there have been substantial and continuing increases in wages and salaries for all workers. For instance, the Dominion Bureau of Statistics annual index of average earnings in a representative cross-section of all Canadian industries was almost one quarter higher in 1955 than in 1951.

In addition to the Census data on the earnings of women in various occupations, information on wage and salary rates is available from other sources. Chief among these is *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada* issued annually by the Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour. This publication includes detailed information on the wage and salary rates paid to workers on a time or an incentive basis in representative occupations in most industries.

Two annual publications of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics also provide data regarding earnings; they are *Teachers Salaries and Qualifications* and *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing*. The latter gives over-all average earnings for manufacturing industries, rather than for individual occupations. Information regarding the salaries of social welfare workers is available from the *Survey of Welfare Positions* published in 1951 by the Department of National Health and Welfare.

## Part V — Legislation Affecting Women Workers

Legislation dealing with various aspects of employment has an important bearing on the conditions under which women work in Canada. According to the terms of the British North America Act, the authority to legislate on labour matters, in so far as the great majority of workers are concerned, is in the hands of the provincial legislatures. It is only in certain "works, businesses and undertakings" whose activities are for the most part inter-provincial or nation-wide in scope that federal rather than provincial laws apply to working conditions, and the only ones of these in which a substantial number of women are employed are inter-provincial transportation; radio, telephone and telegraph operations; and banking.

The Department of Labour in each province administers the labour laws enacted by its legislature. In order to ensure compliance with the minimum standards established by law the provinces altogether employ almost five hundred inspectors, men and women who are engaged in inspecting work places. Some of these are technically qualified inspectors concerned with such matters as the safe operation of boilers, others are engaged in examining payrolls to see that wage and hour laws are being observed.

The main fields of labour legislation are health, safety and welfare, including compensation for industrial accidents; and wages, hours and other working conditions. The table on page 53 shows in a very general way which provinces have legislation in the various divisions of these fields.

### 1. Health, Safety and Welfare Legislation

Laws to protect the health, safety and welfare of men and women in their working environment constituted the first type of labour legislation. In its modern form, this kind of legislation usually sets out the general stipulation that an employer must keep the workplace in such a way that it will not be injurious to the health, safety and comfort of the employees. It may also include specific provisions in regard to ventilation, light and heating. In places where there is dangerous machinery the law may require that the machines be guarded. If a dust-producing process is carried on there may be a requirement that a mechanical ventilation system be installed. For a variety of other hazards a large body of safety rules have been made minimum legal standards.

For the most part, provisions respecting health and safety are considered necessary for the protection of all workers and apply whether men or women are employed. There are some provisions, however, that apply particularly to women workers and not to men. An example of a provision applying only to women is the fairly common one that women working in factories wear a suitable head covering to prevent the danger of catching the hair in moving machinery.



## **Hazardous Occupations**

There are also a number of provisions excluding women from hazardous operations or types of work. In all provinces women are prohibited from working underground in mines. In the Province of Quebec, women are prohibited from working on a number of processes including abattoir operations and those in which poisonous fumes are produced or dangerous explosives handled. In two provinces, British Columbia and Manitoba, restrictions have been placed on the weights which women may lift in the course of their work.

## **Welfare Facilities**

Certain welfare provisions are particularly applicable to women. In some provinces and in some types of employment it is required that seats be provided for women workers if their occupation permits that they be seated. In two provinces, Ontario and Manitoba, where ten or more women are employed in an establishment, the employer is required to provide a rest room equipped with couches and chairs, and if thirty-five or more women are employed, a welfare supervisor must be employed.

## **Workmen's Compensation**

Under a workmen's compensation law in each province, a woman worker who is disabled by an industrial accident or a disease caused by the nature of her employment is entitled to compensation. Compensation for a woman, as for a man, is based on the extent of disability and the amount of earnings. There is a ceiling, usually \$3,000 or \$4,000, on the amount of earnings which may be taken into account, and the maximum compensation for disability is limited to a specified percentage of earnings (70 per cent or 75 per cent, depending on the province). In fatal cases, dependents are awarded fixed monthly sums.

## **2. Wages, Hours and Other Working Conditions**

For a substantial number of women, wages, hours and some other conditions of work are determined by collective bargaining and are set out in collective agreements. Labour relations legislation which protects the right of a worker to be a member of a union and gives a representative union bargaining rights on behalf of the employees is in effect in each province and in respect to the industries under federal jurisdiction.

Under other laws, basic standards have been established in respect to certain terms of employment. To employ a person to work under conditions less favourable than these standards is considered to be contrary to the interest of society as a whole, and neither a private agreement nor a collective agreement may validly contain such conditions.

### **Wage Rates**

For a very large proportion of women employees in Canada, minimum wage rates are set by law. These apply to most industrial and service workers but not to agricultural workers or employees in private homes.

In most provinces, the same minimum wage rates apply to male workers. In Ontario and Nova Scotia, however, minimum rates are not set for men, and in New Brunswick they apply only to male cannery workers; in Alberta, Manitoba and Newfoundland, and in a few industries in British Columbia, a lower rate is set for women than for men.

Rates are not prescribed in the minimum wage Acts themselves, but in each province are set out in regulations under the Act, based on the recommendation of a minimum wage board established by the Act. The methods of setting wage rates differ. In some provinces they are issued for individual industries, in others the rates apply generally to most industries, but they may differ between urban and rural areas or large industrial areas and smaller cities and towns.

Minimum wage orders are reviewed fairly frequently. Information about the current rates can be obtained from the Department of Labour in each province.

### **Equal Pay Laws**

Laws that prohibit discrimination in rates of pay to women workers are a recent development of special interest to women. Such laws have been passed in five provinces (Ontario, Saskatchewan, British Columbia, Nova Scotia and Manitoba) and also for the industries under federal jurisdiction. Under these laws a woman employee who considers that her rate of pay is not equal to that paid to a male fellow employee doing the same kind of work may make a complaint to the Department of Labour which administers the Act, and there is provision for investigation of the complaint and for redress if it is well founded.

### **Hours of Work**

The first limitation on hours in Canada restricted the hours women and young persons were permitted to work in factories. The main purpose of these laws was to curb long hours which were detrimental to the health and welfare of the worker. The present legislation of five provinces, (Manitoba, New Brunswick, Ontario, Quebec and Saskatchewan) still contains some provisions of this type, which limit the hours of work even if overtime rates are paid.

The more recent legislation on hours of work, however, applies to men as well as to women and sets a limit closer to the prevailing practice. Five provinces (British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba and Ontario) have hours of work laws of general application setting a maximum of eight hours a day and forty-five or forty-eight hours a week. In some instances these limitations may be exceeded if one and one-half times the regular rate is paid. In one province, Manitoba, the length of the maximum work week is forty-four hours for women and forty-eight hours for men. In Quebec and Newfoundland a rate of time and one-half the regular rates must be paid for certain overtime work.

Associated with limits on hours of work is the prohibition of night work for women. Night work in factories is prohibited for women in some provinces. With a permit from the inspector the limitation on working hours can be extended in some cases to eleven o'clock at night, or the



Minister of Labour may have discretion to allow night work. Some provinces require that an employer furnish transportation for women who work late in certain types of employment, mainly restaurants.

### **Rest Periods**

Rest periods are another associated matter on which there are some legislative requirements. So far as weekly rest is concerned most provinces require twenty-four hours in a week, usually consecutive, and in British Columbia the requirement for a substantial number of women workers is thirty-two hours in a week. All the provisions regarding rest periods during the day apply only to women. In Manitoba, it is required that a rest period of ten minutes be allowed each female employee for a work period lasting three hours or more. Five provinces (Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec and Nova Scotia) set a minimum lunch period for women workers in factories. In British Columbia at least a half-hour free time must be given after five consecutive hours of work. In four provinces, (Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec) if women in factories work on into the evening they must be given time off for a meal.

### **Vacations with Pay**

Minimum standards may also be established by law in respect to the granting of annual vacations with pay. Seven provinces (British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec and New Brunswick) have legislation of this kind requiring the employer to give an employee a vacation with pay, in some provinces one week, in others two weeks.

## **3. Fair Employment Practices**

Laws to prohibit discrimination in employment on grounds of race, colour, religion or national origin have been enacted by Parliament and by the legislatures in six provinces in the last five years. The principle underlying this legislation is that selection for employment should be based on an individual's fitness for the job and advancement on his performance in the job. Such legislation is one of the means by which public policy is shown to be against the social evil of discrimination.

# PROVINCIAL LEGISLATION AFFECTING WOMEN WORKERS, 1956

	Safety Health and Welfare	Compensation for Industrial Accidents and Diseases	Labour Relations	Minimum Wages	Equal Pay	Regulation of hours of work through restrictions on hours or requirement of payment of overtime rate	Restric- tion on night work of women	Weekly Rest	Special provisions regarding daily rest periods, minimum lunch periods etc. for women	Annual Vaca- tions with	Fair Employ- ment Practices
B.C.	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Alta.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	
Sask.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Man.	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Ont.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Que.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
N.B.	X	X	X	X				X		X	X
N.S.	X	X	X	X	X				X		X
P.E.I.	X	X	X								
Nfld.	X	X	X	X	X	X					



## 4. Summary of Provincial Legislation Affecting Women

The table on the preceding page shows the fields in which labour legislation has been enacted in each province. The mark X indicates that the legislature has dealt with the subject, but no attempt is made to show whether the legislation is comprehensive or confined only to certain employment or to certain aspects of the subject. Specific information on any provincial labour laws may be obtained from the Department of Labour in the province concerned. Information is also available in an annual publication of the Federal Department of Labour entitled *Provincial Labour Standards\** concerning child labour, holidays, hours of work, minimum wages, equal pay for equal work, fair employment practices, weekly rest-day and workmen's compensation. The Department also publishes an annual bulletin on workmen's compensation, entitled *Workmen's Compensation in Canada*.

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\*These bulletins are obtainable from the Queen's Printer, Superintendent of Government Publications, Ottawa, Price ten cents each. Current developments in any of these fields may be followed through the Labour Law Section of the *Labour Gazette*, the official journal of the Federal Department of Labour. Annual subscription is \$2.00, single copies 25 cents.

## 5. Unemployment Insurance and Placement Service

The Unemployment Insurance Act establishes a national system of insurance for workers in the event of unemployment. The Act has wide coverage, although there are some occupations in which considerable numbers of women are engaged that do not come within its scope, for example, domestic service in private homes, school teaching and private nursing. Employees who are paid on an hourly, daily or piece-rate basis are covered regardless of the amount of their annual earnings, but other employees are excluded if their earnings exceed \$4,800 a year. The insurance fund is financed by equal contributions from the employee and the employer, to which the Federal Government adds one-fifth of the combined contributions, also paying the costs of administration. The amount paid to the insured person during a period of unemployment is related to his or her average contribution, which in turn varies according to earnings.

The Act authorizes the Unemployment Insurance Commission to operate the National Employment Service for workers seeking employment and employers seeking workers. Employment offices are situated throughout Canada, in sparsely populated areas as well as large metropolitan centres. Some have sections specializing in the placement of women, and in many there is counselling for young people seeking their first jobs, for older workers and for the physically handicapped. While the first task of the employment office is to match applicants with jobs in the local area, through a scheme of clearance, employers' requirements which cannot be filled locally may be advertised in other offices.

## Part VI— Conditions of Work for Women in Selected Industries

Many factors have contributed to the establishment of present day working conditions. A general interest in social welfare has led governments to accept responsibility for establishing objective standards such as are provided in the legislation described in the previous chapter of this book. A growing emphasis on better human relations in personnel policies, coupled with the possibility of labour shortages in a period of full employment, has made employers more receptive to the demands of their employees for improved working conditions. On the other hand, workers have become increasingly aware of their rights and their ability to achieve improved working conditions through collective bargaining. In recent years the shortening of the work week, the granting of vacations with pay, and the introduction of other fringe benefits such as pension plans and medical services, have come to be major issues in negotiations between employers and employees and increasingly are being written into collective agreements.

In most large establishments in which men and women are employed, the same conditions of work apply to employees of both sexes. Establishments with smaller numbers of workers, many of whom are women, often find it difficult to compete with the larger concerns in the establishment of extra benefits, since the cost of such employee benefits is frequently greater on a per capita basis. Working conditions for both men and women vary, therefore, not only in accordance with the legislation of various provinces, but also from industry to industry and even among establishments within a particular industry.

The survey of working conditions, conducted annually by the Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour, provides information on conditions of work in establishments employing fifteen persons or more. Since most of the conditions covered apply equally to both men and women workers, the data obtained do not provide separate information for women. Many of the industries covered, however, employ women to a substantial extent. In the following pages, therefore, information on working conditions is presented for a few selected industries where the proportion of women workers is relatively high. It should be repeated that the following information applies to all workers in the industries designated, and that it by no means gives a complete picture of the conditions of work of women in all Canadian industry.

### 1. Selected Manufacturing Industries

In 1956 women constituted almost 22 per cent of the total number of persons engaged in manufacturing in Canada, although the proportion varied greatly from one industry to another. In the manufacturing industries covered by this analysis, the percentages of workers who are women were as follows in 1955:



Industry	Percentage of women to total number of employees covered by survey (1955)
Food and beverages.....	23.0
Tobacco and tobacco products .....	57.3
Textiles (except clothing).....	34.3
Clothing (textile and fur).....	67.5
Electrical apparatus and supplies .....	27.3

### Standard Weekly Hours

Approximately 53 per cent of the workers in the selected industries had a standard work week of forty hours or less at the time of the 1955 survey. The percentages of workers having such a schedule in the various industries covered were as follows:

Industry	Percentage of workers with a standard work week of 40 hours or less
Food and beverages.....	45.3
Tobacco and tobacco products .....	89.7
Textiles (except clothing).....	38.9
Clothing (textile and fur).....	51.4
Electrical apparatus and supplies .....	80.3
Five industries above .....	52.9

In the textiles and clothing industries, however, substantial proportions, 23.3 per cent and 21.6 per cent respectively, worked weekly schedules of forty-eight hours or longer.

It is important to realize that the standard work week is not necessarily equivalent to the number of hours actually worked. Standard weekly hours are the number of hours per week after which employees are considered to be working overtime. With overtime, employees may work more than the scheduled number of hours just as they may work fewer if sales and production fall.

The five-day work week was the reported practice in establishments employing 80.1 per cent of the workers in these five industries. In electrical apparatus and supply firms, this practice applied to almost all workers (99.6 per cent), while in food and beverages 65.8 per cent of the workers were on a five-day week schedule. The corresponding percentages in the other three industries were: tobacco and tobacco products, 95 per cent; clothing, 88 per cent; and textiles, 78 per cent.

### Vacations With Pay

In recent years there has been a substantial increase in the number of workers who receive vacations with pay. Most workers in manufacturing now receive two weeks' vacation with pay after serving for five years or less. There has also been a trend towards the granting of three-week vacations, most frequently after fifteen years of service; also evident is a shortening of the periods of service required for granting vacations of varying lengths.

Of the five industries considered here, electrical apparatus and supplies and tobacco were the most liberal in granting three-week vacations. In these industries 79 per cent and 76 per cent of the workers respectively were in establishments reporting that they give three weeks' vacation after service of fifteen years or less.

### **Paid Statutory Holidays**

The number of paid statutory holidays varies considerably from industry to industry. In the five under review, the number most commonly granted is eight, almost 40 per cent of the employees being in establishments which had that number; an additional 14 per cent were in plants having nine or more such holidays; the remaining 46 per cent were given seven or fewer holidays. In the tobacco industry just under 90 per cent of the workers were in establishments which reported eight or more holidays, while in the clothing industry only 21 per cent received that number. In the other three groups, the percentages of workers receiving eight or more holidays were: electrical apparatus, 88 per cent; food and beverages, 78 per cent; and textiles, 45 per cent.

### **Rest Periods**

Three-quarters of the workers in the industries selected were in plants that granted rest periods during the working day, the most common practice being two rest periods of ten minutes each per day. The percentages of workers who enjoy rest periods in these industries were as follows: tobacco, 99 per cent; food and beverages, 89 per cent; clothing, 73 per cent; electrical apparatus and supplies, 63 per cent; and textiles, 59 per cent.

### **Special Benefits**

Discounts on goods were granted to 59 per cent of the employees of the establishments covered in these industries. This practice is most common in the electrical apparatus industry in which 85 per cent of the workers were given discount privileges.

Cafeterias were established in plants employing approximately 40 per cent of the employees in these five industries.

## **2. Hotels, Restaurants and Laundries**

A second segment of employment covered by the working conditions survey includes hotels, restaurants and laundries. The proportions of women employees in these industries as reported by respondents to the survey were 42 per cent, 60 per cent, and 63 per cent respectively. Conditions of work in these three groups were on the whole considerably less favourable than in the selected manufacturing industries.

### **Standard Weekly Hours**

Only 30 per cent of hotel employees covered by the survey had a standard work week of forty hours or less. In laundries, 24 per cent of



the employees worked forty hours or less, while in restaurants the proportion was still smaller, 19 per cent. The forty-four hour week was most prevalent in hotels, being the hours scheduled for 35 per cent of the workers; 31 per cent usually worked forty-eight hours, while a few (1.6 per cent) had even longer hours. In restaurants, the most common weekly schedule was forty-eight hours, which was worked by 43 per cent of the workers. In laundries, the proportions of employees working forty-four hours and forty hours or less per week were 27 and 24 per cent respectively.

While almost half of the workers in laundries were on a five-day week, only 33 per cent of the workers in hotels and 17 per cent of those in restaurants had such a schedule.

### Vacations with Pay

Vacations with pay are also less widely granted in these areas of employment. In hotels, 41 per cent of the workers became eligible for two weeks' vacation after two years of service, but 27 per cent required five years' service before being granted such a vacation. In restaurants, 28 per cent of the workers received two weeks' vacation after one year's service, while a further 22 per cent became eligible for such a vacation after two years of service. In the case of laundries, one fifth of the employees required three years' service before having a vacation of two weeks, and more than one-tenth required five years' service to receive this benefit; only 3.1 per cent received two weeks after one year of service.

### Conditions of work in Selected Industrial Groups, 1955

The industrial groups selected are ones in which women participate to a substantial degree. The percentages set out below indicate the proportions of non-office employees (both men and women) to whom specified conditions apply in the establishments surveyed.

Industrial Group	Five-Day Week	Vacations with pay of two weeks' duration after service of five years or less	Employees in establishments reporting paid statutory holidays, (number of days varying) (per cent)	Employees in establishments granting rest periods
Food and beverages .....	65.8	85.5	93.8	89.0
Tobacco and tobacco products.....	95.4	83.5	98.4	99.4
Textiles (except clothing) .....	77.8	88.0	94.9	59.0
Clothing (textile and fur) .....	88.4	77.1	86.5	72.6
Electrical apparatus and supplies .....	99.6	93.4	99.1	63.3
Hotels.....	32.6	88.7	58.3	—
Restaurants.....	17.0	68.8	62.8	—
Laundries .....	48.6	47.1	81.2	—

Source: Survey of Working Conditions, 1955. Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour.

### **Paid Statutory Holidays**

The observance of some paid statutory holidays was reported for 81 per cent of laundry workers, 63 per cent of restaurant employees, and 58 per cent of the hotel personnel covered by the survey. The number of such holidays paid for varied considerably, however. One-fifth of the hotel workers were paid for seven statutory holidays, while in laundries 44 per cent of the workers enjoyed eight or more such days.

## **3. Banking**

A survey of working conditions in Canadian banks (including the Bank of Canada, a Crown Corporation) made in 1954, covering a total of 46,000 workers of whom about 58 per cent were women, yielded the following information.

### **Standard Weekly Hours**

The standard work week of bank employees ranged from 35 to 40 hours; 48 per cent of the employees usually worked 37½ hours or less and most of the remaining 52 per cent had a scheduled 40-hour week. All employees had a five-day week.

### **Vacations with Pay**

After service of one year or less, 74 per cent of these employees received vacations of two weeks with pay. Three weeks with pay after one years' service was granted to a very small number (less than 2 per cent) but after twenty years' service, 33 per cent of all bank employees became eligible for this longer period and a further 30 per cent became eligible after 25 years. Some banks gave an extra week's vacation to employees who elected to take them during the winter months, and one bank gave employees with more than twenty-one years' service a four-week vacation if it was taken in the off season.

### **Paid Statutory Holidays**

Bank employees are paid for all statutory holidays specified in the Bills of Exchange Act, a federal statute that prohibits certain financial transactions on Sundays and specified holidays: New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, Victoria Day, Dominion Day, Armistice (Remembrance) Day, Christmas Day, those days proclaimed as holidays in celebration of the Queen's birthday and Thanksgiving Day, and in addition in Quebec, the Epiphany, Ascension Day, All Saints' Day and Conception Day. By the same statute they are granted days proclaimed as public holidays by the province or municipality in which they are situated.

## **4. Life Insurance Companies**

A survey of working conditions of office employees in the head office of twenty-eight Canadian life insurance companies was made in 1955. The number of workers covered by this survey was just under 11,000, of whom 64.4 per cent were women.



### **Standard Weekly Hours**

The length of the standard work week for 85 per cent of these workers ranged from thirty-five to thirty-seven and a half hours, while the remaining 15 per cent usually worked somewhat longer hours. Practically all (99.6 per cent) were on a five-day week.

### **Vacations with Pay**

All those covered by the survey were entitled to two weeks' vacation with pay after one year or less. Vacations of three weeks after service of ten years or less were reported by establishments employing 9 per cent of the workers, while 72 per cent became eligible for such a vacation after fifteen years, 14 per cent after twenty years, and three per cent after twenty-five years.

### **Paid Statutory Holidays**

All employees covered by the survey had seven or more statutory holidays; 18 per cent had seven days; 23 per cent eight days; 20 per cent nine days; 26 per cent ten days, 6 per cent eleven days; and the remaining 7 per cent had more than eleven days.

## **5. Pension and Insurance Plans**

Pension and insurance plans are available in varying degrees to workers in all these types of employment but there is lack of information as to the differences in treatment of men and women under the various plans. These tend to vary with personal circumstances as well as with establishments. Married women may choose to opt out of contributory plans, if they are permitted to do so, especially if their husbands already have such protection for themselves and their families. Young women, also, who do not plan to continue many years in gainful employment tend to be less interested in pension schemes than are young men who already feel the existing or probable responsibility of providing for a wife and a family. On the presupposition that these women are typical of the total female labour force, it is often taken for granted that pensions and insurance are less important for women than for men.

In some establishments, therefore, even schemes that are compulsory for male employees are not applicable to women. It is also sometimes the case that insurance plans for women do not permit the same range of both participation and ultimate benefits as do those for male employees. In this connection it is important to note that frequently the retirement age for women is earlier than that for men and also that the life expectancy of women is greater. These factors tend to increase the cost of pensions for women and, therefore, to militate against the equal treatment of women in pension schemes.

Nevertheless, as women become more fully integrated into the labour force and as the need for social security measures for all people becomes more widely recognized, pension and insurance plans for women are being given more serious consideration than in the past. Women who marry and give up their jobs are being encouraged to hold their pension credits in the form of deferred annuities against possible risks, such as the loss of a husband leaving them alone with responsibility for their children.

















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